DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 026 513 VT 007 500

By-Hall, J. Curtis, Ed., And Others

Business Education: An Evaluative Inventory. National Business Education Yearbook, No. 6.

National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Pub Date 68

Note-386p.

Available from-National Business Education Association, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($4.75).

EDRS Price MF-$1.50 HC Not Available from EDRS.

Descriptors-Area Vocational Schools, *Business Education, Community Colleges, Cooperative Education, *Educational Trends, Instructional Technology, *Program Development, *Program Evaluation, *Program Improvement, Secondary Schools, Teacher Education, Teaching Methods, Teaching Procedures

The purposes of this yearbook were to present a critical analysis of the past and present, and to provide a projection into the future of business education. This yearbook includes contributions by 31 business educators and provides a chapter on the projections for the future for each of these areas: (1) Secondary School Vocational Education for Stenographers and Secretaries, (2) Secondary School Vocational Education for Bookkeepers and Related Workers, (3) Secondary School Vocational Education for Clerical Workers, (4) Economic Literacy, (6) Secondary School Cooperative Part-Time Programs, (7) Secondary School General Education of Business Students, (8) Area Vocational and Technical Schools, (9) Community (Junior) Colleges, and (10) Business Teacher Education. The introduction provides an analytical look at business education. (MM)

ED 026513

C1

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICROFICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

an evaluative inventory

VT007500

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICRO-
FICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

BUSINESS EDUCATION: AN EVALUATIVE INVENTORY

NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION YEARBOOK, NO. 6

2

Editor: J. CURTIS HALL, Ed And Others
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

Associate Editors: RUSSELL A. JOHNSTON
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

JOHN D. LAMBERT
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

WOODIE L. TUCKER
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

Published by: National Business Education Association
A Department of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

BUSINESS EDUCATION: AN EVALUATIVE INVENTORY

Copyright 1968 by

NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
A DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036
$4.75

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CARD NO. 64-8334

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted work has been granted to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and to the organization operating under contract with the Office to Education to reproduce documents included in the ERIC system by means of microfiche only, but this right is not conferred to any users of the microfiche received from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Further reproduction of any part requires permission of the copyright owner.

Any views or recommendations implied in this book do not necessarily constitute official policy of the National Business Education Association or of the National Education Association. References to and quotations from this publication are encouraged; however, no part of this book may be reproduced without permission of the National Business Education Association, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States.

Contents

BUSINESS EDUCATION: AN EVALUATIVE INVENTORY

CHAPTER PAGE

1 AN ANALYTICAL LOOK AT BUSINESS EDUCATION 1
THE EDITORS

Part I. The Secondary School 5–254

SECTION 1 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR STENOGRAPHERS AND SECRETARIES 5-46

2 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 5
ALFRED PATRICK
Eastern Kentucky University
Richmond, Kentucky

3 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 16
REBA K. NEEL HUCKABAY
Louisiana Polytechnic Institute
Ruston, Louisiana

4 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 34
WALTER SHELL
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Blacksburg, Virginia

SECTION 2 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR BOOKKEEPERS AND RELATED WORKERS 47-84

5 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 47
JACKIE WILLIAMS
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

6 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 60
HARRY HUFFMAN
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

7 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 71
SARA E. ANDERSON
Marshall University
Huntington, West Virginia

CHAPTER PAGE

SECTION 3 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR CLERICAL WORKERS 85-127

8 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 85
MARY MARGARET BRADY
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville, Illinois

9 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 99
IRENE PLACE
Portland State College
Portland, Oregon

10 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 118
MARY ELLEN OLIVERIO
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, New York

SECTION 4 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR SALES AND RELATED OCCUPATIONS 128-164

11 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 128
RAYMOND A. DANNENBERG
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

12 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 139
ROBERT E. ROSE
Boise College
Boise, Idaho

13 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 153
LEROY BUCKNER
Florida Atlantic University
Boca Raton, Florida

SECTION 5 EDUCATION FOR ECONOMIC LITERACY 165-194

14 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 165
CLARENCE MAZE, JR.
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee

15 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 173
J. CURTIS HALL
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

CHAPTER PAGE

16 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 182
RAY G. PRICE
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

SECTION 6 COOPERATIVE PART-TIME PROGRAMS 195-226

17 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 195
KENNETH ZIMMER
California State College at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California

18 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 205
MARGUERITE CRUMLEY
Virginia State Department of Education
Richmond, Virginia

19 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 217
FRANK W. LANHAM
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

SECTION 7 GENERAL EDUCATION OF BUSINESS STUDENTS 227-254

20 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 227
MAX R. CARRINGTON
Florence State College
Florence, Alabama

21 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 236
WOODIE L. TUCKER
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

22 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 244
JOHN D. LAMBERT
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

Part II. Area Vocational and Technical Schools 255–301

23 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 255
WALTER A. CHOJNOWSKI
State Board of Vocational and Adult Education
Madison, Wisconsin

CHAPTER PAGE

24 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 283
ARTHUR L. WALKER
Virginia Vocational Association
Richmond, Virginia

25 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 293
CARLOS K. HAYDEN and A. J. LEMASTER
University of Houston
Houston, Texas

Part III. Community (Junior) Colleges 302–332

26 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 302
ROBERT J. THOMPSON
Foothill College
Los Altos Hills, California

27 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 313
SUSANNE A. TJORNHOM
Fergus Falls State Junior College
Fergus Falls, Minnesota

28 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 321
J. ALVIN DICKINSON
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky

Part IV. Business Teacher Education 333–377

29 STRENGTHS OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 333
JAMES G. MARMAS
St. Cloud State College
St. Cloud, Minnesota

30 WEAKNESSES OF THE PAST AND PRESENT 344
ROBERT E. HOSKINSON
Washington State University
Pullman, Washington

31 PROJECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE 355
JOHN E. BINNION
Texas Technological College
Lubbock, Texas

Introduction

BUSINESS EDUCATION: AN EVALUATIVE INVENTORY

Chapter 1

An Analytical Look at Business Education

By **THE EDITORS**

Today more students are taking business courses than ever before. These courses are offered in high schools, technical schools, independent business schools, community colleges, junior colleges, senior colleges, and universities. They cover a wide range of subject matter and purport to develop just as wide a range of knowledge, skills, and professional competence. The result is that we are now spending more time, effort, and money in the field of business education than at any other time in our history.

DRAMATIC CHANGES IN BUSINESS ACTIVITIES

The number and kinds of business activities in which people engage have increased enormously during the last half century. This means that every citizen must learn more in order to be an effective participant in economic life. The change in the nature of jobs in business has been just as dramatic. The crisp, straight-forward business letter that the stenographer transcribes today is a far cry from those of yesteryear that were signed 'yr. obdt. servant." Likewise, telephone operators who were collectors of all local gossip by way of the party line have given way to Centrex, direct dialing, and impersonal recorded messages that tell us we have dialed a nonfunctioning number. Bookkeepers have abandoned single entry with quill pens for punched cards and magnetic tapes. Clerical workers have pushed aside their pigeonhole desks in favor of batteries of electric typewriters, sorters, and collators. Even in the grocery store, sales and clerical personnel who formerly dealt in "staples" have become familiar with salmon from Nova Scotia, asparagus and litchi nuts from Taiwan, tuna from Japan, melons from Spain, Feta cheese from Greece, and baklava from Syria.

The end is nowhere in sight. On the contrary, the pace of change is likely to accelerate in the future. This means that society is faced with the burden of preparing youth for an increasingly complex world of work and retraining vast numbers of adults whose one-time saleable skills are no longer adequate.

THE PROBLEM OF RE-EDUCATING OURSELVES

Teachers, too, must constantly be re-educated in order that they may help others adjust to changes in technology, in ways of life, and in value systems. In our efforts to cope with all that is new, we discover that we also have to cope with ourselves, who are no longer new! There are those among us who resist all change and dismiss as impractical anything that requires us to learn something new or to change the established pattern of our teaching. There are the lethargic, the plodders, and the complacent who are satisfied with things as they are and who will one day find that progress has passed them by.

Also among us are those who hasten to jump on the bandwagon of anything that is new, often without carefully considering what the results may be. For example, the look-say method of reading had its devotees, but now some believe that it produced a generation of children who cannot read effectively. Programed instruction has yet to achieve what its early advocates claimed for it. The most glamorous new child of business education is data processing. A well-known business educator has been heard to say: "You can forget all about shorthand and typewriting. You must teach every business student all you can about data processing." This statement illustrates the single-mindedness with which some of us embrace new ideas. It is quite possible that even the manufacturers of data processing equipment will continue to use stenographers who have not been programed!

Somewhere between these two extremes there probably is a balanced course of action for the future. Our major task now, as always, is to find the proper balance. But how do we go about making such a search? Perhaps the best way to begin is to take a realistic look at what we have done in the past and are doing today. Only then can we make reasonable projections for the future.

A REALISTIC LOOK AT OURSELVES

The first goal of this yearbook was a penetrating of the past and the present in business education. The second objective was a projection into the future. The plan was to have business educators who had experienced much of the recent past tell us what they believed the strengths of business education have been and are at the present. We asked others to comment on the weaknesses of the past and the present. Finally, we asked still others to visualize what the future holds for business education.

The editors were very much aware that what one person considers a weakness another might consider a strength. Any evaluation is by definition subjective, since it involves making value judgments. There is much value, however, in examining different points of view; and only when we begin to make value judgments about what we have done can we hope to improve. Our ability to use the strengths and the weaknesses of the past to improve the present and to build for the future will be reflected in what we accomplish in the 1970's and the 1980's.

It was our hope that this yearbook would present a critical analysis of the good and bad in our past and would look with clear vision to the future. Only the events of the future and the judgments of the reader can determine how well the book has accomplished those objectives.

I

The Secondary School

1. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR STENOGRAPHERS AND SECRETARIES

Chapter 2

Strengths of the Past and Present

ALFRED PATRICK, Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond

Today business education, as well as most other educational disciplines, finds itself amid a great flurry of changes, innovations, new developments, and new ideas. While it is of utmost importance that we remain a dynamic and ever-improving part of the American educational system, it is equally important that we do not become innovators merely for the sake of innovation. We need sound, reliable, and valid evidence that the new directions are definitely an improvement over the old; we must be sure that the old we discard is of less value than the new we take up.

Business educators should continue to experiment with the novel and unique in education for stenographers and secretaries and in all other phases of business education. However, the purpose of this chapter is to attempt to point out areas in which vocational education for stenographers and secretaries has been, and continues to be, strong.

AIMS

The basic aim of vocational education for stenographers and secretaries is unchanged from that which has existed over the past several years: the development of marketable stenographic-secretarial skills that will enable a person to obtain a job and to be able to advance to higher level jobs. While our basic aim has remained unchanged, the specific objectives or behavioral objectives that are appropriate for our over-all aim of developing marketable skills may have changed drastically. For example, we may need to be emphasizing the development of competencies in the offset duplication process instead of the stencil duplication process; or we may need to be developing competencies in the operation of printing calculators instead of key-driven calculators. Nevertheless, our basic aim is still to develop the skills that the market is demanding of stenographers and secretaries.

In the past we have been greatly concerned and occupied with the development of high rates of speed in typewriting and in writing shorthand from dictation. Even though in some instances our goals may not have been as valid as they might have been, we should still strive to develop high degrees of proficiency in typewriting, or in writing shorthand from dictation, or in transcribing shorthand notes into usable typewritten material. Quite frequently we see published data comparing commonly used school standards for typewriting or shorthand classes with the standards used by business; many times the standards that are said to represent what businessmen want are considerably lower than the school standards. Some writers use data of this nature to support their contention that school standards in most secretarial courses are unrealistically high. However, it is quite likely that the standards that many businesses accept are low because it is either difficult or impossible to get employees who are well trained; thus, businessmen settle for employees with lower abilities because they can do no better—not because these are the levels of abilities that they prefer.

In addition to striving for the development of marketable skills, we have tried in the past (and should continue to do so in the future) to develop the abilities to use these skills in a business atmosphere; some educators have referred to this as "occupational intelligence" or as "social adaptability that is applied in business situations." That this is an important issue to many people is evidenced by the continual debate over whether lack of skill or lack of social adaptability is the reason for most job losses among secretarial workers.

We should continue to develop high levels of marketable skills for stenographers and secretaries; and we should strive to cultivate those attitudes, characteristics, and traits that will enable workers to function effectively with other people in business situations.

ORGANIZATION FOR TEACHING

Determining the proper curriculum for the education of stenographers and secretaries is a matter of determining: (a) what is appropriate general education and what is appropriate vocational education and, (b) what is the proper mix or balance between general education and vocational education. Since the topic of general education for business students will be treated at length in a subsequent chapter, the focus here will be on the vocational aspect only.

Our curriculum should be designed in such a way that the end product of that curriculum (the student) possesses the marketable skills that reflect our basic aim in stenographic education. In determining the composition and sequence of the curriculum, we should continue to be guided by past experience, by advisory committees, by job surveys, by job analyses, and by research findings. It seems unlikely that we should have business curriculums in the foreseeable future (regardless of the technological advances that will be made) that would not include subject matter such as accounting, bookkeeping, or recordkeeping; spelling; business English; basic business and/or economics. The cooperative work-experience concept appears to be one that is especially sound and one that we should endeavor to promote and expand.

Some past practices and programs that have been changed have resulted in lowered quality of secretarial education. Moving from two years to one year of shorthand instruction in high schools is an example; research findings generally indicate that one year of shorthand is insufficient time in most school situations to prepare vocationally competent shorthand writers and transcribers.[1] A continuation of some past and current practices will maintain the quality of our programs at a higher level than would some of the new programs now being tried. We should have shorthand for four semesters; typewriting, or typewriting plus office practice, for three or four semesters; plus the following content (which would not necessarily have to be offered in separate courses)—basic business, consumer, or economic education; data processing concepts; accounting, bookkeeping, or recordkeeping; business communications; and office machines.

TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

While it is hoped that business textbook publishers will try to improve the quality and variety of textbooks, the field has much of which to be proud when considering textbooks and other instructional materials available for teachers of stenographic skills. Some of the leading authorities in typewriting, shorthand, and office practice have contributed to the high quality of our texts. We have a greater selection of materials; authors are attempting more and more to simulate office conditions and office work insofar as is practicable in published materials; obsolete materials are constantly being eliminated and new content added.

The use of color, study aids, illustrations, and suggestions for teachers have increased the effectiveness of texts. We have a wide selection of films, filmstrips, charts, and posters; more recently we have been able to choose from among records, magnetic tapes, programed instruction, and transparencies. For example, we have a variety of textbooks, workbooks, and practice sets to use in the teaching of automation and data processing; and one major company has produced materials for teaching unit-record and electronic data processing concepts which include programed instruction texts and a large number of high-quality, professionally prepared transparencies.

It appears that typewriting texts, for example, have incorporated material that is justified by research findings. Much material is presented in "office style" in an attempt to accustom students to office procedures and activities. A feature that is especially helpful to inexperienced teachers is the lesson planning that is built into most typewriting textbooks. Copy of graduated difficulty is often provided in order to promote smooth development of skill and meaningful measure of growth. Material is often presented in cycles or spirals—a new concept, principle, or application is learned; practice is provided to develop proficiency; and the degree of proficiency attained in the skills is measured. Authors of instructional materials are placing more emphasis on the ultimate objective of vocational education for stenographers and secretaries—the acquisition of skills which are needed to produce usable material in the business office.

EQUIPMENT

A dimension in which vocational education for stenographers has been strong, and has been strengthened even more by the funds made available through the Vocational Education Act of 1963, is that of equipment. For the most part, business education has taken its lead from business and industry and is providing instruction on the machines or types of machines that are used most widely in offices. Some examples are: the move toward instruction on the electric typewriter on a wide scale; introduction of key-punch training or stimulated key-punch operation; acquaintance with various office copying machines; the use of dictating-transcribing units; decreased emphasis on key-driven calculators; increased emphasis on rotary calculators and, more recently, printing calculators; and the introduction of machine shorthand.

It is not feasible, or sensible, to try to train all secretarial students to operate all business machines and equipment with proficiency; however, we should continue to provide instruction on the equipment that is used most widely and which can be justified from the standpoints of skill levels required in business and instructional time required to reach adequate levels of proficiency.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

Much of what we have considered as appropriate for evaluation of achievement in the stenographic-secretarial area will remain appropriate for the future. Speed goals for shorthand and typewriting courses are as appropriate today as they were in the past. However, we must not be satisfied with the development of ability to write shorthand at 120 words a minute or to type straight-copy material at 75 words a minute. While these levels of performance are worthy objectives, they should not be the ultimate objectives. A shorthand writer who can do no more than record dictation at 120 words a minute is of little or no value in most business offices; a typist who has only the ability to type at 75 words a minute on straight-copy material will find little work in most offices to which she can transfer her skill.

Since there must be standards for evaluation prior to the end of the training program, some intermediate criteria for evaluation must be established. Many shorthand teachers have used and are now using word lists or theory tests in their evaluation of student progress in shorthand classes. In spite of the condemnation given to this practice by some of the leading shorthand authorities, teaching and testing on theory or knowledge of the system appears to be the best way we now have of getting the students to learn the shorthand system. If knowledge of the correct shorthand theory is not important—which is implied by the arguments of some authorities—why even bother to teach a system? Let each shorthand writer develop his own system! If students feel that it is not important to learn the shorthand theory, there will be little incentive to study to learn the system; and if a student does not know the system, then his shorthand writing becomes his own system which he contrives as he writes. Surely a shorthand system that is supposed to be scientifically determined, with periodical revisions purportedly based on research findings, is superior to a system that the overwhelming majority of students could contrive. Yet, without trying to insure that students learn the system we claim to teach, we encourage students to develop their own shorthand systems. Some shorthand authorities have attacked the findings of research studies that have reported high correlations between transcription errors and errors in shorthand outlines. One argument advanced is that the real cause of mistranscriptions is not incorrectly written shorthand outlines but the lack of *shorthand reading ability,* which is the ability to fill in gaps in shorthand notes or decipher incorrect shorthand outlines. This type of reasoning may apply to simple words such as *the, if, of, and,* and the like; but it does not apply to words that are longer and which are used much less frequently. Therefore, in the light of available research findings, it appears that teachers should continue to emphasize correct shorthand theory; they should expect students to learn and be able to write shorthand outlines correctly; and they should test students on their knowledge and application of theory.[4, 5, 6, 8, 10]

Since we achieve greater transfer of learning as the practice situation becomes more like the job situation, there is strong justification for introducing at early stages in our secretarial-stenographic courses the job-like activities that we may have been offering only near the end of our vocational courses.[14] For example, the introduction of typewritten transcription during the first semester of shorthand is no longer considered a radical approach; many teachers believe that the first transcription in shorthand should be at the typewriter at the very beginning of the shorthand course. Research findings also point up the low degree of transfer from straight-copy typewriting rates to "office style" production ability.[12] The introduction of, and increased attention to, production practice early in typewriting courses is justified by research evidence.[3] Many teachers have been using this approach, but perhaps *too few* teachers have been using it to *too limited an extent.*

That knowledge of results and reinforcement in learning is recognized by many teachers is shown by the almost exclusive use of lettered key-boards in typewriting classes. And, while many teachers may not yet actively encourage the students to look at the keys throughout the keyboard-learning stages of typewriting (even though this practice is supported by psychological principles), they no longer consider the practice to be one that causes irreparable damage to the development of typewriting proficiency.

Fortunately, more and more business teachers have realized that the standards for evaluating prospective stenographers and secretaries, at or near the end of their training programs, should be as much like the job situations in which they will be working as is possible to achieve in a classroom. Therefore, we have seen shorthand teachers become interested in knowing more about their students than just how fast they can take dictation; teachers want to know how efficient the student is in terms of producing material that would be considered mailable or usable in a business office. The ability to produce mailable material from shorthand notes necessarily incorporates many other abilities: spelling, punctuation, syllabication, grammar, word sense, typewriting, efficient use of reference materials, the ability to make decisions and execute them quickly, and so forth.[6] Typewriting teachers want to know how many usable tables, how many mailable letters, or how much corrected copy of rough draft material can be produced in a given time. Teachers want to know how long it will take a student to take completely unarranged data, make decisions about it, and finish with a copy or copies to which an executive would be willing to sign his name.

METHODS OF TEACHING

In our stenographic-secretarial education programs, there are many methods or techniques of teaching that have proved to be highly effective in developing vocational skills.

The value of the so-called "technique emphasis" approach in teaching skills has been demonstrated. Early in the typewriting course it is more important that students use proper techniques than that they typewrite accurately, because the types of responses that students automatize will determine the upper limit to which skills can ultimately be developed. For example, it is more desirable for a student to make typewriting responses quickly and with the right kind of stroke than it is for him to typewrite more accurately but with incorrect stroking techniques. Early in shorthand it is more important that the students practice writing shorthand fluently, probably with less than desirable proportion, than it is to concentrate unnecessarily on correct proportion and thereby create a jerky, hesitating style of drawing outlines.

Closely related to the emphasis on proper technique early in stenographic-secretarial courses is the emphasis on developing fast, or relatively fast, rates of responding with less attention given to accuracy. Most typewriting and shorthand authorities agree now that, over the long run, emphasis on correct techniques and speed of responding early in the course is more conducive to the development of skill than is the early emphasis on accuracy of responding.

We need to continue to strive to individualize learning of the secretarial-stenographic skills. We have recognized the value of multiple-channel dictation equipment for providing shorthand practice dictation at levels that are appropriate for more students than one level of dictation given by a shorthand teacher can be. Many teachers are making extensive use of commercially prepared and teacher-prepared records and tapes to help achieve, or approximate more closely, individualized instruction. Students are allowed to check out materials to use at home; they may use the materials in a library or in a shorthand laboratory in the school; or students may purchase recorded dictation at various speed levels.

Because of the nature of the skill and because of the type of instructional materials used most of the time, individualized instruction in typewriting probably has been more easily realized than in shorthand; students have been able to pace themselves if they knew how and at what pace they should be performing. However, we have encountered difficulty in individualizing typewriting instruction in the instances where the teacher attempts to pace the students himself or where some mechanical pacing device is used. Most pacing devices for typewriting instruction have been used with an entire class or with small groups within a class, which means that some students are still not being paced at the speed that is most appropriate for them.[7, 9] Some research has been conducted on the use of completely individualized pacing devices, but the results have not been particularly encouraging.[2] The most promising individualized pacer appears to be a computer-based system in which a computer will determine for each student appropriate practice materials, speeds, and goals. Hopefully, we will continue to explore the possibilities of computer-based instruction as well as other arrangements for individualizing instruction in the stenographic skills.

Business teachers are now making use of various mechanical teaching aids in the development of stenographic-secretarial skills—controlled readers, shorthand laboratories (with multiple-channel dictation), television, overhead projectors, opaque projectors, tape recorders, and record players.

There are some methodological practices in the teaching of stenographic-secretarial courses that have not been used long enough nor extensively enough to classify as well-established or traditional practices. However, these teaching practices are not ones that are used only in isolated cases; they may not have been used extensively in the past, but they are certainly gaining more attention and more support at present. One of these practices is an increased acceptance of the practicality and psychological soundness of using the "sight typing" approach to learning the typewriter keyboard. The approach is supported by research findings involving skills other than typewriting as well as research dealing specifically with typewriting.[13] More shorthand teachers have become aware of the value of introducing shorthand writing early in the shorthand class, of doing the maximum amount of writing after writing begins, of introducing typewritten transcription early in the course, and of having students transcribe from their own shorthand notes instead of text plates or teacher-prepared material. These practices are supported by psychological principles.[14]

The teachers of stenographic skills have realized the importance of more realistic, office-like practice and experiences in the classroom. Typewriting teachers are providing more practice on production materials—letters, memos, tables, rough drafts, and so forth—instead of focusing primarily on straight-copy proficiency, which correlates only slightly with production proficiency. Shorthand teachers are providing more practice in which the objective is to produce mailable material, transcribed from shorthand notes. We should continue to use these teaching methods, and they should be used on a wider scale than is now the case.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

Teachers of secretarial skills are better qualified today than ever before. Most of the teachers are educated in college programs that require a broad general or liberal arts education; a broad background of business administration, economics, and accounting; preparation in the specialized secretarial skills; psychology and professional education courses (which include methods of teaching business courses); and student teaching experience that is coordinated and supervised by college personnel.

Many of our business teachers have had firsthand experience in office work, and many more are actively engaged in gaining office work experience in order to qualify as teachers in federally reimbursed vocational business programs. More and more teachers are doing graduate work and earning graduate degrees; they are taking advanatge of the wide variety of high-quality in-service programs, workshops, and seminars offered throughout the regular sessions and during summers in our nation's colleges and universities. Business education (especially the stenographic-secretarial area) has strong professional organizations at every level—local, state, regional, and national. We are fortunate to have teachers of stenographic skills who are capable, well-educated, dedicated, experienced, and professional.

CONCLUSION

We can do a better job in the vocational education of prospective stenographers and secretaries; the same is true for any subject matter area. We should be anxious to find better ways and more appropriate content to teach for the future; but we should also recognize that vocational education for secretaries has been one of the strongest, if not *the* strongest, segments of business education in the past. We should attempt to improve our programs in the future in every way possible, but we should retain as a solid base for improvement that which has succeeded in the past and is succeeding today. We should abandon what has worked well only when we can improve upon it.

SELECTED REFERENCES

[1] Anderson, Ruth I., and Bright, Martha D. "Let's Look at the One-Year Shorthand Program." *Journal of Business Education* 27: 117-20; November 1951.

[2] Bryson, Jewell. "The Effectiveness of an Individual Mechanical Pacing Device, the Strong-Pacer, in College Typewriting." Doctor's Thesis. Knoxville: The University of Tennessee, 1965. (Typewritten)

[3] Crawford, Thomas James. "The Effect of Emphasizing Production Typewriting Contrasted with Speed Typewriting in Developing Production Typewriting Ability." Doctor's Thesis. Pittsburgh: The University of Pittsburgh, 1956. (Typewritten)

[4] Frink, Inez. "A Comprehensive Analysis and Synthesis of Research and Thought Pertaining to Shorthand and Transcription, 1946-57." Doctor's Thesis. Bloomington: Indiana University, 1961. (Typewritten)

[5] Haggblade, Berle. "Factors Affecting Achievement in Shorthand." Doctor's Thesis. Los Angeles: University of California, 1966. (Typewritten)

[6] Jester Donald D. "A Time Study of the Shorthand Transcription Process." Doctor's Thesis. Evanston: Northwestern University, Chicago 1959. (Typewritten)

[7] Johnson, Margaret H. "The Effects of Skill-Builder Controlled Reader Training in Facilitating Skill Development in College Typewriting." Doctor's Thesis. Denton: North Texas State University, 1962. (Typewritten)

[8] Patrick, Alfred L. "An Error Analysis of Selected Brief Forms and Principles in Shorthand Notes of Beginning Gregg Diamond Jubilee Shorthand Students." Doctor's Thesis. Knoxville: The University of Tennessee, 1965. (Typewritten)

[9] Perkins, Edward A., Jr. "Mechanical Stimulus Displays in Typewriting Training." *The Delta Pi Epsilon Journal* 6: 49-64; February 1964.

[10] Pullis, Joe M. "Relation Between Accuracy and Achievement in Shorthand." *The Delta Pi Epsilon Journal* 9: 25-30; February 1967.

[11] West, Leonard J. "Acquisition of Stenographic Skill." *Business Education Forum* 18: 7-8; October 1963.

[12] West, Leonard J. "Implications of Research for Teaching Typewriting." *Delta Pi Epsilon Research Bulletin No. 2.* St. Peter, Minnesota: Delta Pi Epsilon, 1962.

[13] West, Leonard J. "Vision and Kinesthesis in Acquisition of Typewriting Skill." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* April, 1967, pp. 161-166.

[14] Woodworth, Robert S., and Schlosberg, Harold. *Experimental Psychology.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964. pp. 751-56.

Chapter 3

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

REBA K. NEEL HUCKABAY, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston

Webster defines the word *aim* as the purposive directing of effort. It is not so much a matter of weaknesses in the aims for teaching vocational education for stenographers and secretaries, but rather it is a matter of weaknesses in carrying out these aims. The mere stating of aims and objectives does not guarantee that they will be carried to their fruition. Failure to carry out the aims is the main weakness in the vocational education program for stenographers and secretaries.

Teachers often fail to establish goals of any kind. When goals are set, teachers often fail to understand them; therefore, they fail to direct their efforts in a purposeful manner. Teachers of secretarial subjects are prone to become so involved in the specialized subjects they teach that they do not see the over-all education of the student.

The terms *stenographer* and *secretary* have been used synonymously for such a long period of time that both businessmen and educators often refer to secretaries when they actually mean stenographers. Many authorities in the area of secretarial education are of the opinion that few secretaries can be prepared at the secondary level. The background and abilities required of a secretary go far beyond those required of a stenographer; therefore, the majority of students who aspire to secretarial positions should plan to continue their secretarial education at a post-high school institution. There is not enough time at the secondary level to give the students the broad background of both general and technical knowledges necessary to function at a secretarial level. Some of the differences between a stenographer and a secretary are as follows:

A stenographer may be described as a person who takes and transcribes dictation from shorthand notes or who transcribes dictation from a transcribing machine. This is her main function, although she may perform some related clerical duties, such as filing, and also act as a receptionist. The stenographer usually works under direct supervision and sometimes works in a stenographic pool. She needs to be familiar with company organization and routine because she often types requisitions, orders, schedules, and checks.

On the other hand, the secretary can be described as an assistant to an executive. Even though she handles the technical aspects of communication and must have a mastery of office skills, she must also assume the responsibility for many minor executive duties. In order to do this she must have a thorough knowledge of routines, personnel, functions, and policies. A secretary must show initiative and use her judgment to make decisions within the scope of her authority.

Purpose of Education

Educators may be better equipped to carry out the aims of vocational preparation for stenographers and secretaries by studying the purposes of education in general and business education in particular. According to Dame, the purpose of education is as follows:

> All education is currently and forever concerned with the growth of the individual person and the society in which he lives. That individual who has learned well the lesson of everyday adjustment in the culture in which he finds himself becomes a welcome and constructive member of society. He is a self-disciplined individual who blends with the social, economic, and political mores of the times. He is one who is capable of making a contribution for the improvement of society through meaningful, creative, and purposeful activity in the economic, civic, and social challenges which are his to meet and to cope with each day.[1]

The words sound impressive, but how many teachers have actually analyzed the meaning attached to them and have ever attempted to apply the meaning to their own teaching situations? If the answers could be tallied, the results would no doubt indicate that here is one of the weaknesses in education as a whole as well as vocational education for stenographers and secretaries.

---

[1] Dame, J. Frank. "The Future Curriculum in the Junior College." *National Business Education Quarterly* 35: 23; May 1967.

Business education in general is a basic part of the culture of modern man; it is not possible for one to function in the society of today without being vitally affected by business. Because business is becoming more and more complex, students must understand the fundamental principles by which it operates in order to adjust to the business environment of their time.

The purpose of secretarial education was summed up by Veon when she wrote that the responsibility of the school (and of the teacher) is to provide the student with high-quality education that will enable him to secure a good initial job as a stenographer or secretary and to adapt himself to that vocation; to inspire and direct further self-development for those students who seek additional formal education for job advancement; and to enable the student to become a competent citizen in the business society.[2]

Business educators should be concerned with the student as a citizen and as an employee; therefore, business education should be equally general and vocational in nature. There should be concerted and continuous counseling by both business education teachers and guidance counselors to make the secretarial trainees aware of the importance of general education as well as education in the skills courses. Too many students preparing for such positions feel that they qualify for a secretarial position when they have attained a reasonable skill in typewriting and shorthand. These skills are basic, of course, but related learnings increase a person's employability and potential for advancement in a secretarial position.

Business education, then, is concerned with the vocational preparation for business occupations including that required for initial employment, that involved in retraining, that needed for advancement in business careers, and that involved in making an effective business contribution.[3]

One of the weaknesses in vocational education for stenographers and secretaries has been caused by teachers trying to prepare "all comers" for secretarial positions. It is recognized that in the public schools all youth have the right to enroll in any curriculum they wish to pursue. However, both the business teacher and the guidance counselor could do much to guide those students who have no hope of successful performance as stenographers into other areas.

---

[2] Veon, Dorothy H. "Secretarial Education with a Future." *Secretarial Education with a Future*. American Business Education Yearbook. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1962. pp. 3-4.

[3] Statement by the Policies Commission on Business and Economic Education. *Business Education Forum* 18: 1; April 1964.

For instance, tests measuring a student's English facility, typewriting proficiency, and general academic ability should be administered in order to have a basis for guidance. It is generally conceded that students of average or below-average ability who cannot handle the English language well and who cannot understand concepts and grasp relationships rarely attain success in the secretarial area.

There are, however, many clerical jobs in which these students can succeed. These are the students who should be guided into a curriculum that will prepare them for a job in which they can perform adequately.

Change in Secretarial Education

A key to the analysis of the aims of secretarial education, as well as to the other programs in business education, is the word *change*. One of the weaknesses of both the past and the present is that many teachers are not alert to the changes that have been taking place in the business world. Secretarial education is one of the most vital areas affected by change; unless new challenges are met with high-quality secretarial education, potential secretaries will not be prepared to cope with future responsibilities.

CURRICULUM

> Secretarial education in tomorrow's complex technology necessitates the fullest expansion of a student's knowledge and rational ability in business-related disciplines; otherwise this form of education will become merely training in the technical areas.[4]

This statement summarizes the importance of a sound curriculum in the secretarial program, yet studies indicate that the typical American secondary school still teaches the basic "big three" courses: typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand.[5] Although courses such as business arithmetic, general business, office practice, and some types of cooperative work programs are popular in different parts of the country, they have not been generally taught on a national scope.

---

[4] Veon, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

[5] Cook, Fred S., and Mead, Martha L. "Expectations for Development of the High School Curriculum." *National Business Education Quarterly* 35: 13; May 1967.

All of these courses are important to the education of both the stenographic and the secretarial student. Because of the great emphasis in data processing in present-day offices and because there will be an even greater emphasis in the future, those preparing for secretarial careers must have an understanding of data processing. If there is no opportunity at the secondary level for the student to attain knowledge in data processing, he must do so at a post-secondary institution or at in-service training sessions. This is necessary in order for the secretary to understand current business practices.

One of the weaknesses in the stenographic and secretarial curriculums has been the lack of opportunity for the students to obtain relevant work experience before entering full-time employment. For many years, educators have been acquainted with the purposes, strengths, and weaknesses of the cooperative work experience programs. Local circumstances and conditions often prohibit the meaningful operation of such a program. Thus a second type of work experience program is being employed by business teachers. Relevant work experience obtained through the intensive laboratory method of instruction is gaining favor among knowledgeable business educators. This is the method by which the work station is duplicated within the school and the instructor is a full-time capable teacher whose basic function is teaching.

According to Eyster, relevant work experience should provide an enrollee with practical applications of knowledge, skill, and techniques requisite for success and advancement in the student's career objective.[6] This type of instruction is designed to give the student an opportunity for experience in using knowledge, skill, and technique in actual production work. The intensive laboratory method of teaching applies to actual work activities, knowledge, skills, and techniques already learned in other activities in school. The objectives of the intensive laboratory are to:

1. Integrate theory and practice.
2. Apply theory to actual work situations.
3. Utilize one's knowledge and skill in a production situation.
4. Give the student a sense of self-confidence.
5. Provide opportunity to discover imperfections and weaknesses in the student's competency and understandings in application of skills.
6. Attain a level of competency to enable the new employee to shorten the learning time on the job—to enable the new employee to produce from the beginning.

---

[6] Presentation made at Indiana University, August 4, 1967.

7. Provide for gradual introduction to work supervision and authority; and provide for gradual introduction to good working relationship with boss and supervisor.

As the production laboratory method of instruction gains favor in the secondary schools, the weakness of no relevant work experience can be eliminated.

Development of Curriculum

The greatest weakness in the vocational curriculums of the past and present is the hodge-podge fashion in which they have been put together. This has been done by borrowing from the curriculums of many schools instead of through sound research into what is needed for developing vocational programs for particular schools. The vocational education curriculum for stenographers and secretaries should serve the needs of the students who wish to prepare themselves for the secretarial field, and it should also serve the needs of the area in which the students are usually employed.

Another weakness can be found in the lack of sequence for courses. In some schools there are enough course offerings to give a student a good background for secretarial work but no planned sequence exists. Therefore, there is little carry-over from one course to another and the students see little relationship among the courses.

Curriculum planners have often failed to be creative and imaginative in their thinking. They have relied too often upon the teachings of "experts" who might be reliving the past or upon the study of another community or upon a study made more than five years ago within their own community.

Business education in general and secretarial education in particular have a tremendous responsibility if the students and the community are to be properly served. When the secretarial education curriculum is being developed, it should be remembered that no single pattern of subjects can be prescribed to meet the needs of every school.

Research findings indicate that few students are adequately prepared for entry into stenographic positions after one year of shorthand at the high school level. Yet many schools continue to offer one year of shorthand to those students who expect to enter a business occupation at the termination of their high school education. On the other hand, stenographic training programs have been included in high schools located in areas in which there is little demand for stenographers. In the small high school from which few stenographers have been placed during the past five years, the stenographic sequence should not be included. Rather than offering a stenographic sequence in an area in which there is little demand for stenographers, a business program of a more general nature should be offered, such as basic business, typewriting, office practice, data processing, and bookkeeping.

In his assessment of the influence of technology upon the vocational dimension of the educational program, Venn observed that, "What is called for is more and better . . . occupational education on a more general basis—teaching certain basic skills, of course, but also devoting more time to the development of broader technical understanding of communication and computational activities." [7]

Vocational education for stenographers and secretaries has a vital role to play in the business world of the present and the future. In order for business teachers to recognize and correct the weaknesses in the stenographic/secretarial curriculums, they must be aware of the importance of this vocational preparation. The teachers must be knowledgeable about business changes and research findings. It is important that teachers learn to discard the trite and trivial in the curriculums and strengthen them by incorporating the best findings of research.

TEXTBOOKS

The stenographers and secretaries of today are distinctly different from those who worked in the offices of the past. Not only must each be more adaptable to change, but each must possess more highly developed competencies for initial employment than did their earlier counterparts.

One of the means by which a stenographer and a secretary may attain the necessary knowledges and skills demanded by their jobs is through textbooks. The textbooks that were used in the school systems of the past were undoubtedly considered to be well designed. They conformed to the strict utilitarian framework that characterized schoolwork prior to the last few decades. Textbooks for secretarial and stenographic skill subjects evolved from functional manuals designed for private business college use. The first textbooks in typewriting, for example, were authored by teachers and owners of the private business colleges who wrote in order to have something from which to teach in their own schools.[8]

---

[7] Venn, Grant. *Man, Education and Work.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1964. p. 32.

[8] Russon, Allien R., and Wanous, S. J. *Philosophy and Psychology of Teaching Typewriting.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1960. pp. 17-18.

One of the main weaknesses of the textbooks of the past was the lack of attention to the application of principles of learning. Little or no attempt was made to present course content and skill development by following basic principles of guiding the learning process.

In general, the textbook of the past reflected recognition of the importance of basic skill and efficient, attractive personal characteristics for stenographers and secretaries; but the requirements of the offices of the future (those that guide the far-ranging business activities of today) were not envisioned to any great extent. The emphasis was placed on maintaining the current status without recognition of the changes that were to come.

Textbooks Today

Regardless of the expensive equipment now available and the wealth of teaching materials placed at a teacher's disposal, the textbook used in the class plays a major role in determining the success or failure of the students. Even master teachers rely to some extent on the guidance of a textbook. To a student, a textbook is often the final authority.

One of the weaknesses of the present, as of the past, concerns textbook selection; other weaknesses include textbook contents and the uses that are made of the texts.

Selection. Textbook selection is often made by an official or group of officials far removed from the classrooms in which the textbooks are used. Some states provide for statewide selection of textbooks, a practice which might well place the decision in the hands of political officials. If state adoption is the system in effect, there is frequently a stated period of years, usually five, which must elapse before the book list is revised. In the vocational courses for stenographers and secretaries, this could prove to be a serious weakness. Changes are rapidly taking place in business practice and procedures. These innovations should be recognized and provided for in the textbooks used by future business employees.

At the present time, those systems that allow teacher selection of books have provided the most suitable method. The teacher should be in the best position to know which typewriting or shorthand or office practice textbook will help his students attain appropriate levels of competencies.

Even when teachers are permitted to select the textbooks, many weak ones are chosen. When committees of business teachers jointly select books, there is a problem because they may have little real training in textbook selection. Many teachers do not keep up to date on the changes taking place daily in the business world, and so may not make the best selection of textbooks when they have an opportunity to do so.

Content. The content of textbooks should be presented in logical order. While most current skill texts have this characteristic due to standardization of general methods, some of those used in the past did not. While logical presentation may be standardized in a majority of the skill-building courses, current textbooks used in some skill-content courses, such as secretarial practice, make little effort to link the various topics. Students, therefore, see little connection among topics that are presented. Archaic language and out-of-date illustrations cause textbooks to be less effective than would be the case if modern, up-to-date language and illustrations were used. Vague explanations of how to complete assignments are a weakness in some texts.

The date of publication or revision has an important bearing on the usefulness of the book in its application to modern business. Changing styles in letter forms may mark a typewriting book as old before it is adopted. However, a common fallacy is the assumption that a current edition date always indicates a newly revised edition. New edition dates may mean only new printings of an old edition. A close inspection of content should be made in order to determine if the text has actually been revised.

Only in recent years has there been a trend to give attention to the development of problem solving. Textbooks that are used in vocational secretarial classes, especially, should contain opportunities for problem solving. Even new secretarial practice texts are weak in this respect, as the topics are presented in unit form. Some typewriting and shorthand texts fail to review past principles and techniques sufficiently to insure retention.

Author. The author of a textbook should be someone who is respected in the field in which he is writing. It is important that he be an authority in his subject and competent and experienced in the methodology of teaching the subject. "While most authors writing in the skill courses are acknowledged authorities, some few are merely impressive names, added to enhance the sale value of the book or capture a certain market area." [9]

---

[9] Nolan, C. A.; Hayden, Carlos K.; and Malsbary, Dean R. *Principles and Problems in Business Education.* Third Edition. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1967. pp. 275-76.

It might be said that traditionalism still plays an important part in the selection of textbooks. Teachers must realize that education for business can no longer be traditional. It follows, therefore, that the textbook, an essential element of education for business, can no longer remain traditional. As Herber asserted, publishers and authors of textbooks must begin to view them, not as sources of information but as vehicles for conscious development of appropriate skills, so that students can continue their education independently beyond their years of formal training.[10]

Use of Textbook

An adequate textbook used incorrectly may become as ineffective as one that has insufficient content or poor structure. Two of the most flagrant misuses of a textbook are using it as the sole teaching tool or source of information and failing to plan before attempting to use it. A text can be a crutch or an important guide, depending upon the use that is made of it.

EQUIPMENT

Training in the use of equipment has always played a large part in the vocational education of stenographers and secretaries. Because of the tremendous technological advances in the business offices during the last decade, equipment plays an even greater part in the preparation of students for future employment.

The lack of, poor use of, inadequate, and outdated equipment has created weaknesses in the stenographic education program. One of the main weaknesses has been the scarcity of machines with which to teach in some of the small schools and the obsolete condition of the machines that are available. If students receive their training on obsolete equipment or equipment not used in an actual office situation, they must be retrained, and their high school training is of less value to them.

Administrators of many school systems put the purchase of equipment for the business education department at low priority. Often the selection of the equipment to be used in the business program becomes the responsibility of one who does not have the background to make sound decisions. This person may be a school superintendent, a principal, or a member of the local school board. The business teacher, or a committee of teachers, should make decisions about equipment selection.

---

[10] Herber, Harold L. "New Trends in Textbook Development and Use." *Scholastic Teacher* 87: 10; November 18, 1965.

This infers, of course, that the business teacher is responsible for keeping himself informed about the latest trends in the use of equipment.

Criteria for Selection

Criteria used in the selection of equipment have many times been weak. Equipment choice may be based on that used by other schools instead of taking into consideration the types of equipment graduates of a particular school will use in future employment. Surveys of business firms should be made to determine equipment used in the employing community. This information could cut down appreciably the purchase of already obsolete equipment.[11]

In the past the practice of political patronage was a weakness with which teachers had to contend. Too often, a politically-minded school board installed equipment that was sold by a dealer who could bring political pressure. There was little thought given to suitability of this equipment for teaching particular courses.

Frequently, even business teachers who are given the responsibility for equipment selection do not consider the long-run cost and use of the equipment. For instance, if the cost of certain equipment is thought to be prohibitive, length of life and the production rate should be considered. Perhaps over a long period of time, the cost would be less of a factor.

In a somewhat different light, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 has provided funds, otherwise unavailable, for the purchase of much-needed equipment. However, this availability of funds increases the likelihood of the purchase of equipment of limited use in teaching. Little research is done in some schools before the purchase of expensive equipment as to how it can contribute to the vocational competency of the students. Equipment is purchased because the funds are available and because there is a prestige factor involved in owning certain types of equipment.

A weakness of the selection committee's criteria in many budget-conscious schools is the preoccupation with buying second-hand equipment or encouraging donations of machines companies no longer need. While equipment is frequently obtained in this way, there are reasons why this practice may be detrimental rather than beneficial:

---

[11] Nolan, Hayden, and Malsbary, *op. cit.*, p. 294.

1. Many such models of equipment may be out of date to the extent that students would need a great deal of retraining on the job with current models.
2. The higher repair bills and low trade-in value of this equipment may offset the initial savings at purchase date.
3. It may have been donated or traded-in because it was troublesome to operate.
4. It may have been donated because it no longer was useful in the business community served by the school. It may have become obsolete.
5. Frequently, the necessity for good maintenance of purchased equipment is not planned. Many business departments suffer continual breakdowns in equipment, with a resultant lowering of the morale of teachers and students.[12]

Equipment with Limited Use

Some schools have contributed to the weakness of the vocational education of stenographers and secretaries by purchasing equipment on which little training is needed. Valuable classroom time is used in teaching students how to operate such machines when they should be taught by the employing institution.

On the other hand, some equipment is too complicated to teach at the high school level. These machines require an inordinate amount of time to learn to operate—time that could be used to greater advantage in other areas of study. The use of this type of equipment should also be a teaching responsibility of the employing agency.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

One of the major weaknesses in education for stenographers and secretaries is the lack of vocational standards of achievement. Many teachers fail to set standards of achievement for the business subjects, thereby causing the students to be unprepared for job-entry standards. Perhaps one of the reasons teachers have been lax in setting terminal standards for business subjects is that employers have been unable to agree on job-entry standards.

What are the achievements or production standards required for entry into business? The argument concerning speed versus accuracy has continued through all the years of secretarial education. However, it would appear reasonable to assume that both speed and accuracy are desirable in an office situation. The quality of the production work is involved to a greater extent than the quantity. In trying to satisfy the needs of business, is is necessary that both teachers and students know the standard by which the product may be judged.

---

[12] Federinko, John E. "Selection and Maintenance of Equipment." *Eastern Business Teachers Association Yearbook.* New York: New York University Book store, 1966. p. 244.

Teachers have made some attempt to determine standards; however, the efforts have not been especially enlightening. Research studies engaged in jointly by business educators and businessmen could go far in the development of standards. One of the efforts in this direction might be the conducting of surveys and follow-up studies of both businessmen and former students. The contacts with former students may well produce a better basis for setting standards than will contacts with businessmen. The former students remember quite vividly if the competencies they gained in the classroom were sufficient for their beginning jobs.

Standards should not remain static. It is not uncommon for teachers to survey business community needs, set up standards for the vocational courses, and then continue to use those same standards for years to come. Standards should be flexible to meet the changing needs of the world of business, and they should be revised from time to time in light of these changes.

Unrealistic Standards

Even when standards have been set, they have often been set unrealistically. A student must feel that the standards toward which he is working are such that he can attain them; otherwise, he will be discouraged and will put forth little effort in his attempt to attain the standards. Standards are not always communicated to the sudents. Thus, the student works in something of a vacuum, not knowing how near he is to achieving the desired goal. The student should be told what will be expected of him when he enters the job market.

Businessmen have lost confidence to a certain degree in the grading standards set in the classroom. This loss of confidence has been caused by the inconsistency of grading standards from one school to another and from one teacher to another within the same school. A grade of *C* in one school given by one teacher might well be a grade of *A* in another school given by a less demanding teacher who has no definite vocational standards that the students must meet.

Standards have not always been set according to the graduated levels of progress. Students are easily discouraged when they are told the end-of-the-semester standards that they must attain, unless they are also given short-range or intermediate goals. It should be explained to students in the skill subjects, especially, that learning takes place in a progressive, step-by-step process and that they will be graded on the basis of this progression. The students in typewriting, shorthand, and transcription should not be penalized for grades made at the first of the semester if they progress and attain terminal class standards by the end of the semester.

High school students are not often required to work under pressure in a class situation. The business employee is continually subjected to working under pressure; therefore, the beginning worker finds it difficult to adjust to working within a time limit. Given enough time, the majority of secretarial students can turn out acceptable work; however, the difference beween an extremely valuable employee and an expendable one is the accuracy and speed with which he produces mailable or useable copy. Students should be timed in their vocational courses in order that they may get the feel of working under pressure.

High standards of accuracy have not been emphasized by all teachers, and students have failed to develop pride of workmanship. Teachers have often accepted less than the students' best in the class situation, and beginning employees have gone to their first jobs with the notion that the same kind of performance is acceptable in the office—that is, just any kind of work is acceptable.

Social promotion, which has become acceptable in the secondary school, has carried over to the vocational courses as well as to the general education courses. Students have often been graded on the basis of regular class attendance, popularity, and the like, instead of on the basis of vocational competency. Such a student is somewhat shocked when he comes to the realization that he is not as capable of getting and holding a job as he had been led to believe. Teachers do students an injustice when they do not hold to high standards in the classroom.

There is a need for the teacher to follow up on the student, after he has accepted a position, to learn how effective he is performing as a stenographer or secretary. This allows the teacher to evaluate his own effectiveness and also to judge how closely he attains the objective of preparing stenographers and secretaries.

METHODS OF TEACHING

It has been true too often that a teacher develops a certain method of teaching and continues to use the same method regardless of the results obtained. To use the same method of presenting shorthand material, for example, to each class year after year is much easier than experimenting to find the method that is best for a particular group of students.

Even though much has been written about the psychological principles of learning as they apply to the teaching of skills, they have been too often ignored in the classroom. The teaching of subjects in the business skills area, such as typewriting and shorthand, is necessarily complex. The classes at the secondary school level are ordinarily composed of youth with widely differing backgrounds, personalities, characteristics, and motivations. The subjects themselves are specialized, unique aspects of the curriculum of the school and they require somewhat different abilities and interests from the general education courses. The psychological principles of learning can well be put to work in the teaching of these vital vocational subjects.

The methods used by business teachers in presenting vocational subjects to their students have been a subject of controversy since such subjects have been taught. The controversy continues as to whether the functional or the basic approach to the teaching of shorthand is the better and also whether it is more desirable to emphasize speed or accuracy in typewriting.

Method has been defined as "the procedure by which the teacher meets the learner at his level, starting with his interests and his problems, and then establishes conditions that enable him to proceed to reach set goals in as effective a manner as possible." [13]

Sorenson stated that learning is a change in responding that involves abilities, emotions, attitudes, and all other behavior which results from the activity of the individual.[14] Sawrey and Telford referred to the process of learning as those changes within a person brought about by experiences.[15] The key idea in these and other definitions of this important process is that of the *person,* that one individual in whom this process must take place. Learning a new skill is not an easy matter;

---

[13] Tonne, Herbert A.; Popham, Estelle L.; and Freeman, M. Herbert. *Methods of Teaching Business Subjects.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965. p. 23.

[14] Sorenson, Herbert. *Psychology in Education.* Fourth edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964. p. 380.

[15] Sawrey, James M., and Telford, Charles W. *Educational Psychology.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1958. p. 62.

each "change in behavior" will come only through work, and this may be accompanied by "growing pains," such as anxiety.

Seagoe emphasized that when the learner encounters difficulties, it is the job of the teacher to sense the needs, give assistance at the right time, and encourage the student at all times.[16] The teacher of skills in particular would do well to apply this psychological truth by using praise, creating an interest, and inspiring confidence to help students develop dexterity in motor skills and the facility to use them.

Vocational Subjects Must Be Taught

Teachers have failed to realize that vocational subjects must be taught. Good results are hard to obtain in the classroom in which the teacher sits at the desk, calls out an assignment, and proceeds to grade papers for the remainder of the period. This unprofessional attitude on the part of many teachers has not only hampered students' progress but also has brought justifiable criticism to the whole area of business education. In referring to the teaching of transcription, Tonne stated the following:

> Some shorthand teachers are still in the "glass-wall era" in teaching transcription. They are like the business teachers of 30 years ago who taught bookkeeping in one room while watching through a glass wall their typewriting classes at practice in the next room. The students turned in their papers at the end of the period for grading, and about all the teacher contributed to learning was to "keep order" and to keep out of the way so that students could learn by attrition. Fortunately, the teaching of typewriting has changed. In many shorthand programs, however, the old pattern persists. The teacher dictates in the shorthand room, the class goes to the typewriting room for 30-40 minutes of sustained transcription during which the teacher's only function is to operate the stopwatch and grade yesterday's papers; and here, too, any competency that emerges develops by attrition.[17]

Personal-Use Courses

There has been an increased interest in both shorthand and typewriting over the last few years. Unfortunately, the methods used in teaching these courses for personal use have not measured up to the highest standards. While there does seem to be an increasing need for all students to take typewriting, the method of teaching the beginning course for personal use or for vocational use should be the same. Because they were taking typewriting for personal use, students have been allowed to develop poor techniques which were extremely difficult to correct, if they were ever corrected. By using incorrect fingers to strike letters, the shift key, the backspacer, and by returning the carriage improperly, students have been severely handicapped in their typing progress.

---

[16] Seagoe, May V. "How Learning Takes Place." *American Business Education Yearbook.* Fifteenth Yearbook. Somerville, New Jersey: Somerset Press, 1958. pp. 247-48.

[17] Tonne, Popham, and Freeman, *op. cit.*, p. 221.

Shorthand is used relatively little as a tool for personal use. The time and effort it takes to learn shorthand well enough to be used with facility far outweighs the actual use most students make of it in notetaking and the like. It is well known that unless a skill is highly developed, little use is made of it—personal or otherwise.

"Watered-Down" Courses

Other justifiable criticism has been leveled at secretarial subjects because of the way they have been taught. Business educators have been prone to complain that they were getting only the low-ability students in their classes and therefore had to gear their teaching of the skills and knowledges at a low level.

Though it is true that there are still certain duties in the business world that can be performed by lower-ability workers, for the most part the jobs have become more complex and more demanding of highly developed skills. Perhaps then, if instead of "watering down" the secretarial content to meet low abilities the courses were made challenging and thought provoking, more of the higher-ability students would be attracted to them. Butcher expressed this same belief as follows:

> It is my contention that in our secondary school business subjects we accommodate students of the lower levels of learning ability. Over a period of time we have lowered standards and "watered down" our courses to the extent that an aura of inferiority oftentimes surrounds our area. High school principals often think of "the commerce courses" as a suitable "dumping ground" for the inferior and problem student.[18]

There must be a continuous effort on the part of business teachers to upgrade vocational courses to keep pace with the upgrading of skills in the business office.

---

[18] Butcher, Stephen. "How Can We Make Business Education Respectable?" *Journal of Business Education* 40: 278; April 1965.

Failure To Use Research Results

Even though research studies on ways to improve teaching methods are numerous, relatively few teachers incorporate research findings in their teaching. In general the research reports indicate that instruction can be vastly enriched through the acquisition and/or the revision of materials for classroom use. The proper selection of materials implies a recognition of the need for such materials and a knowledge of which materials fulfill the need.

Repeatedly researchers have found that the learning of shorthand and transcription is enhanced through the preparation of materials designed to meet the needs of a certain group of students, not just the best material available. There is substantial evidence to support the idea that the most effective learning in shorthand and transcription takes place when the basic textbook materials are supplemented by teacher-selected materials and when teachers prepare materials to meet specific needs of a class.

In 1956 Crawford completed a research study to determine the effect of emphasizing production typewriting contrasted with speed typewriting in developing production typewriting ability.[19] It was determined that students who were taught by the production-emphasis method showed greater gain in production performance than those students who were taught by the speed-building method. Yet, the majority of teachers of typewriting continue to use the speed-building approach rather than the production approach.

Teachers of vocational education for stenographers and secretaries are in a tremendously favorable position. Their products are in great demand; their opportunities for using new and exciting teaching methods abound. Some of the old methods have been found to be effective, and these should be retained. Others, less effective, should be discarded in favor of more effective ones as established by research.

It should be remembered that one teacher obtains excellent results by using a particular method of teaching while another teacher obtains extremely poor results with the same method. Some students respond favorably to one method, while others respond less favorably. The master teacher is an innovator and will find through his own research and that of his fellow teachers the one best method of presenting his subject matter to each new class he teaches.

---

[19] Crawford, T. James. *Production Typewriting.* Monograph 97. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1960.

Chapter 4

Projections for the Future

WALTER SHELL, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg

In the previous two chapters we have looked at some of the strengths and weaknesses of stenographic and secretarial education in the past and the present. Now what of the future? What can we do to make our programs more effective? If we are to make the type of progress that is necessary to meet the demands of the future, there are certain steps that we must take.

1. We must look at our objectives and then candidly ask ourselves whether we are meeting those objectives.
2. We must develop integrated curriculum patterns that focus on jobs rather than on isolated courses.
3. To maximize learning, we must evaluate continuously the effectiveness of our instructional materials and equipment.
4. We must set more meaningful standards and evaluate student progress more realistically.
5. We must continue to look for more effective and more expeditious ways of teaching increasing numbers of students.
6. If we are to keep pace with the future, we must constantly upgrade and update our teaching competencies.

AIMS

We must look at our objectives and then candidly ask ourselves whether we are meeting those objectives. There is almost universal agreement among business educators that there is one principal objective —and only one—of the stenographic and secretarial curriculum: vocational competency. Our job is to develop in our students the marketable stenographic and secretarial skills that will prepare them to get and hold responsible office jobs. In other areas of business education we may acknowledge general educational values that are as great as, or perhaps even greater than, the vocational values obtained; but in the stenographic and secretarial curriculum the issue has been decided. Our program is justified only if we can successfully develop vocational competency in our students.

If we agree that this is our objective in stenographic and secretarial education, we must then in all honesty ask ourselves if we are truly living up to that objective. Are we actually turning out graduates who are highly trained and proficient, or are we merely trying to convince ourselves—and others—that we are, when the truth is that we are not?

The sad fact is that we are falling far short of our goal of vocational competency. We have been getting by all these years simply because of the insatiable demand for office workers—well trained or not. As a result, our students have been able to get jobs despite the weaknesses and gaps in their training. If they were to be hired on the basis of their real job competency, the fact is that very few of them would be able to get jobs. In short, we have paid lip service to the objective of true vocational competency, but we have never really achieved it.

Will we continue to be satisfied in the future to graduate from our programs prospective office workers who are takers of three- and five-minute letters to be transcribed with 95 percent accuracy instead of highly qualified transcribers who can deal with real office dictation situations? How long will we be content to turn out students who are copyists and straight-copy timed-writing takers rather then accomplished typists who are equipped to perform effectively in authentic office typing situations that require judgment and follow-through? When will we become disturbed by the fact that the students we send into business handle the English language like amateurs instead of experts who can spell correctly, punctuate correctly, construct sentences correctly, use words correctly, and who generally are able to use their native tongue with skill and confidence?

Our research evidence tells us that very few of our typing graduates can meet the speed and accuracy standards required by business for entry jobs. There is evidence to indicate that the majority of our shorthand students are not sufficiently accomplished in their shorthand and transcription skills to transcribe a mailable letter after two years of shorthand instruction. We need no research findings to convince ourselves that our students are inadequate in handling the English language; any businessman can tell us that.

Perhaps the ultimate indictment is the fact that large numbers of the graduates of our secondary stenographic and secretarial programs are forced to pay for instruction in private business schools, junior colleges, and other types of educational institutions to acquire the vocational competency that we profess to develop in high school.

To turn out truly vocationally competent students takes a great deal of hard work and effort, of course; we already know that. But to do the job better will take more than simply a greater expenditure of the same kind of effort. It will take fresh approaches. It will require a sense of dissatisfaction with the past. It will take a real desire to make better use of our time, to set high performance standards, and to redirect our efforts. It will take a willingness to innovate and to strike out in new directions. In short, we must be willing to raise our sights if we are to make our programs as good as they can be.

The purpose of this yearbook is to make an evaluative inventory of business education. The first step in making such an inventory is to look closely at ourselves and ask ourselves if we are doing the job that we are supposed to do. Only by making an honest appraisal of what we are doing and where we are falling short can we hope to make significant progress in the future. Only then will we have a solid base on which to build better programs.

CURRICULUM

We must develop integrated curriculum patterns that focus on jobs rather than on isolated courses. The typical stenographic and secretarial curriculum is built around courses. In some schools the student follows a rather well-defined sequence of courses; in others he moves through the program in an unplanned, hit-and-miss way, taking a course here and a course there. In either case, he takes courses—a course or two in typewriting, a course or two in shorthand, possibly a course in office practice, and maybe a course or two in the basic business area. The emphasis is too much on taking isolated courses and too little on getting a well-coordinated, unified preparation for a job.

The trouble with this type of curriculum is that it is haphazard. It leaves too much to chance. It permits gaps in the student's preparation on the one hand and overlaps on the other. The subject matter is too lean in some areas and perhaps too fat in others. Articulation becomes a problem. The student frequently fails to see meaningful relationships among the various courses that he takes.

In the past, then, we have tended to think in terms of courses. But since vocational programs are intended to prepare students for jobs, what we need to do in upgrading our curriculums in business education is to think in terms of jobs. More specifically, we need first to identify the duties performed by stenographers and secretaries and the abilities necessary to perform those duties; then we need to build a tightly constructed, integrated curriculum to develop the necessary skills and competencies. We already know, of course, what the general duties of stenographers and secretaries are; our task now is to apply new, innovative approaches based on the knowledge we have.

The specific content of a job-oriented curriculum need not differ radically from what we are presently teaching, although hopefully the content would be better integrated and there would be less duplication and fewer gaps in the student's learning. Some topics that are now perhaps getting too much coverage because they are included in more than one course could be either trimmed or covered in more depth, as the situation might warrant. On the other hand, other topics that have been given short shrift could more nearly be given the attention they deserve.

The principal difference between a job-related stenographic and secretarial curriculum and our traditional course-oriented program, then, would lie not so much in the content itself as in the organization of that content. Instead of being organized into several discrete courses, the content of such individual courses as typewriting, shorthand, and secretarial practice would be incorporated into an integrated curriculum consisting of one single, all-encompassing course.

In such a program instructional periods might run for blocks of two or three consecutive class periods instead of the usual single-period sessions. During these longer class periods the units of instruction could be developed and presented in a more flexible way than is now ordinarily possible under our present single-period plan. Work could be integrated into a more effective and meaningful over-all pattern. The time allocations devoted to various areas of instruction need not be as arbitrary as they are now. Time for longer continuous work projects could be provided. Shorthand, typewriting, and secretarial procedures need no longer be treated as separate and often unrelated skills. Perhaps most important of all, the student could begin to see his job preparation in a new light; he could sense more readily the interrelationships among job activities as they are performed in an office.

An example of a job-oriented curriculum is the one being considered for implementation in Virginia.[1] Although the plan in its present form is tentative and will no doubt be modified as circumstances dictate, it illustrates a promising new approach in stenographic and secretarial education. The curriculum cited here is based on units developed by the U. S. Office of Education; they have been adapted by the Business Education Service in Virginia to meet state needs. Due to space limitations, only a small portion of the curriculum is presented here; the complete plan is considerably more detailed and comprehensive. Only the basic structure of one option is given below; several options are available.

The prerequisites for the stenographic-secretarial curriculum are general business and first-year typewriting. All the other subject-matter units are integrated into a double-period block in the eleventh grade and a triple-period block in the twelfth grade as follows:

Eleventh Grade (Double Period)

Shorthand-Transcription	180	hours
Advanced Typewriting	70	
Elements of Fiscal Records	30	
Business Behavior and Psychology	20	
Secretarial Office Procedures	20	
Indexing and Filing	15	
Office Machines	15	
	350	

Twelfth Grade (Triple Period)

Shorthand-Transcription	180	hours
Business Principles and Management	60	
Business Behavior and Psychology	40	
Secretarial Office Procedures	40	
Elements of Fiscal Records	30	
Business Law	30	
Correspondence and Report Writing	30	
Introduction to Business Data Processing	30	
Simulated Stenographic Practice Project	25	
Payroll Records	20	
Office Machines	15	
Filing	15	
Receptionist-Telephone Training	15	
	530	

---

[1] Virginia State Board of Education, Business Education Service. *Suggested Curriculum Patterns: Occupational Education Program—Stenography*. Richmond: the Board, 1967. pp. 2-3.

Any such new curriculum has its potential drawbacks, of course. When class periods are extended into two- or three-hour blocks of time, the possibility of wasted time and nonproductive activities exists. There is also the ever-present danger of monotony unless interesting subject-matter units are developed, unless activities are well planned, and unless varied instructional methods are employed. As a result, the teaching must be better than it has ever been before.

One would be naive not to anticipate opposition. Administrators in many cases will no doubt object to this proposed departure from conventional patterns. Resistance must even be expected from certain business teachers who may be well settled into the traditional scheme of things and dread the thought of change.

Our high schools, however, do not exist to serve administrators or teachers. They exist to serve students. The administrator who puts the well-being of students before administrative convenience, and the business teacher who places the preparation of truly vocationally competent students above adherence to traditional teaching procedures, will be willing to consider innovative approaches.

Fortunately, we are beginning to make dramatic strides in developing and implementing new job-oriented curriculums. Some of our federally sponsored programs for out-of-school youth are already organized under such an approach. Experimental programs on the secondary level are either in operation or in the planning stage in various parts of the United States. Exciting, far-reaching federally-reimbursed research projects are under way. The present trends are highly encouraging and indicate that broadly accepted curriculum patterns based on job competencies rather than on isolated courses may be much nearer than we would have dared dream just several years ago.

TEACHING MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

To maximize learning, we must evaluate continuously the effectiveness of our instructional materials and equipment. A comparison of the teaching materials and equipment, upon which we depend so heavily today, with those of just a few years ago offers convincing evidence that our progress in this area has been nothing less than dramatic. Not long ago business educators had a limited supply of effective instructional aids and only a few basic types of equipment. Now the situation is vastly different. Today we have an abundance of riches: textbooks, workbooks, working papers, practice sets, teaching manuals, study guides, tests, records, tapes, films and filmstrips, transparencies, several different kinds of projectors, television, programed instruction, shorthand laboratories, and computerized instruction—plus an almost endless profusion of constantly improving equipment such as typewriters, adding and calculating machines, voicewriting machines, duplicators and copiers, shorthand machines, and data processing equipment. And this list is not complete.

Teaching materials flow from the nation's publishers at such a rapid rate and new developments in equipment occur with such frequency that the avalanche is almost overwhelming. As a result of this great abundance, it has become increasingly difficult, of course, to keep informed and up to date on the new teaching media in our field and on ways of using it most effectively.

This great increase in the quantity of instructional materials and equipment has been accompanied by another development—and a highly encouraging one. The quality of our instructional materials has soared over the space of just a few short years, and today there is a much greater array of materials to add variety and depth to classroom instruction. The same encouraging generalizations can also be made concerning the increasingly efficient and sophisticated equipment that we use today in business education.

We should not be content, however. Despite their great superiority over the efforts of the past, there is still considerable room for improvement in our teaching materials. High school textbooks, for example, are still written almost exclusively by college professors, who are frequently far removed from the high school and the business scene. Would not every textbook to be used on the high school level be improved by incorporating a high school teacher's point of view? Would not every textbook likewise profit from the help of someone who is actually involved in day-to-day business operations? Who is in a better position to develop meaningful content and the effective organization and level of that content than a high school teacher who works with high school students every day? Who is in a better position to offer suggestions concerning actual business practice than a person who is involved every day in business operations?

Typewriting textbooks have improved enormously over the years. Yet they continue—probably in an attempt to be everything to everybody—to include unrealistic typing procedures to which most offices no longer conform. How many businesses specify double spacing for envelope addresses of three lines and single spacing for those of four lines or more? How many businesses use anything but the most elementary word-division rules? How many businesses use the indented letter style or closed punctuation?

The shorthand materials that we use today are so superior to those of yesterday that they almost defy comparison. Yet our textbooks continue to prescribe the same type of reading and writing homework assignments through two full years of shorthand instruction. Could not varied types of interesting assignments be just as educationally valid—and perhaps even more so—than the same type of homework night after night after night for four full semesters? What about syllabic intensity? Could not the dictation-material-difficulty barrier be broken so that we could have a more reliable method of determining the difficulty of the dictation materials on which we drill and evaluate our students?

Even at the same time, then, that we take pride in and comfort from the great improvements that have been made in instructional materials in just a few short years, we must not make the mistake of accepting them blindly. We must continue to ask ourselves—and the publishers—the searching questions that will lead to even better instructional materials in the future than those we have today.

A similar word of caution about new instructional media seems in order. We must guard against embracing too many types of teaching aids and devices with too much haste and too little thought. While we in business education should continue to participate in the development and use of bold new instructional media, we should not in our excitement lose our sense of proportion.

In short, we must constantly evaluate the new teaching media in terms of their effectiveness and cost. There is a danger, of course, in being so conservative and unwilling to change that we stifle progress. On the other hand, there is just as great a danger that we will expend great amounts of time, effort, and the taxpayers' money on teaching innovations that are so untried and so unproved that they may turn out to be fads rather than solid learning tools. We should not, in other words, become so enchanted with hardware that we lose sight of educational ends. This caution applies to the least expensive records and tapes as well as the most expensive television courses and computerized instruction.

Until we know through study and research what the educational returns from the new teaching media are, both in terms of results and dollars, we should proceed with caution. While this should not be construed to mean that we should resist progress and be unwilling to experiment with new approaches, it does mean that we should act responsibly and with sound judgment.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENTS AND EVALUATION

We must set more meaningful standards and evaluate student progress more realistically. Evaluation in the so-called skill subjects can be comforting yet at the same time extremely frustrating. We are fortunate in that evaluation in these subjects is considerably easier and more accurate, relatively speaking, than it is in the nonskill or "lecture" courses. When we look, however, at the problem of evaluation in terms of realistic standards that are applicable to business situations, a sense of frustration begins to plague us.

There is no need to rehash here the difficulties involved in attempting to set classroom standards that conform to those of business. We already know that standards vary greatly from one business to another. We know, too, that when we ask businessmen what their standards are, they often are forced to admit that they simply do not have any explicitly stated standards, that they don't know with any certainty what their standards are, or that they have taken the path of least resistance and adopted our classroom standards as their business standards. After talking with the businessman, we usually conclude, therefore, that he is even more confused about what constitutes meaningful standards than we are. As a result, we seem to end up exactly where we started. And the sense of frustration continues.

Nevertheless, it looks as if real help is on the way. Although some research has been done in this area, most of us would agree that it has hardly scratched the surface. A great deal more needs to be done. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, far-reaching and promising research investigations into the nature of basic office functions are now taking shape. As basic job patterns are identified and described, the standards that are inherent in these jobs hopefully will be unearthed as well.

With or without the aid of research studies, however, we can and should upgrade our standards and improve our evaluation procedures in the stenographic and secretarial area. Certainly a major overhauling is long overdue. It is to be hoped that the future will find us continuing to place increased emphasis on the terminal aspects of the skills that we teach. Fortunately, such a movement is already well under way.

More and more teachers are seeing the value of distinguishing clearly between intermediate evaluation and terminal evaluation. In typewriting, for example, straight-copy timed writings serve as a useful type of intermediate measuring device. In the terminal stages of skill training, however, they must give way to timed, businesslike production tests as the most valid type of evaluation procedure. A five-minute timed writing is certainly no adequate substitute for an hour-long production test given under simulated business conditions under the pressure of time with mailability as the major evaluation criterion.

The same generalizations are applicable to standards and evaluation in shorthand as well. Since the terminal skill for which we are training is mailable transcription, our standards and our evaluation procedures should reflect this fact. That they do to a certain degree today is indisputable, of course. The point is that the degree should continue to be increasingly greater in the future if we are to raise the level of our instruction and if we are to see more fruitful results in terms of better-prepared prospective stenographic and secretarial employees.

METHODS OF TEACHING

We must continue to look for more effective and more expeditious ways of teaching increasing numbers of students. To find better methods of teaching is fast becoming a necessity rather than a choice. We are faced with the problem of providing instruction for the great masses of students who are descending on our high schools in ever-increasing numbers. If we are to optimize learning for these large numbers of students—operating frequently with inadequate teaching staffs and under far less than satisfactory physical conditions—we must look for new approaches to permit us to teach better and faster.

We are reading a great deal these days about large classes. A few years ago we thought that the optimum size for a typewriting class, for example, was not over thirty students. Experiments conducted over the past several years, however, have indicated that typing classes consisting of much larger numbers of students—over a hundred in some cases—can be conducted effectively and with good results. We must be careful not to overgeneralize, of course, since there probably still remain more unanswered than answered questions about this methodological approach. Nevertheless, the potential advantages that the method provides for spreading our instructional resources and for upgrading our teaching effectiveness in the future bear looking into.

At the other end of the scale—and a seemingly paradoxical development—is the promise that individualized instruction holds for students in stenographic and secretarial programs as well as in other phases of education. The multiple-channel shorthand laboratory, which permits students of various abilities and at different levels of proficiency to progress at their own learning rates, comes immediately to mind as an example of individualized instruction that is already being widely utilized in the training of stenographers and secretaries. Another promising possibility lies in the learning of shorthand theory through programed instructional materials. On a more advanced level, computer-assisted instruction adds still another exciting new dimension to individualized learning.

Hopefully a great deal more attention will be given in the future to individualized instruction. This type of learning does more than simply allow the student to progress at his own rate. Just as important—and possibly more so—it places increased responsibility on the student for his learning so that he becomes a more active participant in the educative process and a less passive recipient of knowledge passed along to him by a teacher. The teacher, in turn, is freed for more creative pursuits and becomes a resource person rather than a mere dispenser of uniform knowledge.

Despite the promise of such innovative approaches as the teaching of larger classes under certain circumstances and individualized instruction under others, we will no doubt continue for a long time to come to teach by means of the conventional classroom organizational patterns that now predominate. Individual teachers will still have to look, therefore, for ways to improve their personal classroom effectiveness under conditions similar to those under which they teach today. These personal teaching skills are still the backbone of our instructional methodology and will never become obsolete, although they will have to be upgraded, of course, as the educative process becomes increasingly more complex and demanding.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

If we are to keep pace with the future, we must constantly upgrade and update our teaching competencies. There may be a temptation on the part of some stenographic and secretarial teachers to feel a bit complacent about their position in the over-all business education program. Assuming (wrongly!) that the stenographic-secretarial curriculum consists of the two skills of shorthand and typewriting and congratulating themselves on not only being reasonably adept in the skills themselves but experienced in the procedures used to teach these skills to others, they lull themselves perhaps into thinking that all they need do is hold the fort—that they are unlikely to be concerned with or disturbed by change. The skills of typewriting and shorthand, they may rationalize, have remained relatively stable both in content and methodology over the years, so keeping up to date and informed about new developments is for teachers in other business courses.

The progressive teacher in stenographic and secretarial education cannot afford such complacency, of course. He is well aware that there is a great deal more involved in the preparation of a vocationally competent stenographer or secretary than the teaching of shorthand and typewriting skills alone. He knows, too, that advances in education and in business require that he be aware of the implications of these advances for the classroom so that the instruction he provides will be in step with the times. And he knows that the only way to keep constantly up to date is through continuing education.

The form that education takes is not the principal consideration. Whether it is formal or informal, group or individual, in school or out of school is secondary to the fact that it is continuing. Usually it will not be formal in the sense that it will consist of the taking of organized courses. Rather, it will most often involve reading, listening, and being alert to trends and events that have potential significance for what goes on in the classroom.

The job-oriented curriculum patterns mentioned earlier in this chapter provide a striking example of the need to upgrade and update our teaching competencies. These curricular patterns call for a greater depth of knowledge, new instructional methods, and the ability to adapt previously acquired teaching skills to different circumstances. A class that is built around integrated subject-matter units instead of discrete courses and that runs for two or three consecutive periods instead of one cannot, of course, be taught in conventional ways. As a result, change, adjustment, and adaption will be the order of the day. As learning conditions change, our preparation for teaching must be strengthened so that we can adjust smoothly to the demands of those changed conditions.

Another example is suggested by the increasing popularity of machine shorthand as an offering in high school stenographic and secretarial programs. Since it offers a rapid, accurate, and efficient means of taking and transcribing dictation unmatched in some respects by handwritten methods, it appears likely that in the future we will offer instruction in machine shorthand in addition to the traditional manual systems. Here, then, is another development that will call for change in stenographic-secretarial curriculums and that will require teachers prepared to meet the challenge of that change.

The future is going to present us with many promising opportunities—opportunities that will enable us to improve our programs so that learning can be more meaningful and more rewarding for our students. Better programs demand better teaching and better teachers. We can become better only as we constantly look for ways of raising the level of our teaching competency. Only as we do so will we be able to make the most of the opportunities that the future has to offer.

2. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR BOOKKEEPERS AND RELATED WORKERS

Chapter 5

Strengths of the Past and Present

JACKIE WILLIAMS, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond

The importance of maintaining records has long been recognized. The actual history of "keeping books" can be traced to ancient times, with the double-entry method evolving during the latter part of the fifteenth century. Instruction in double-entry bookkeeping dates back to Colonial times; and until the typewriter was first manufactured on a commercial basis, the program of private business schools was limited solely to instruction in bookkeeping. Public schools first offered bookkeeping in 1823, and it was the only business subject taught in high schools for many years.

The importance of financial records in today's economy is even more evident. New laws and social movements in recent years have increased the bookkeeping burden of all types of businesses and of most individuals. The federal and state income tax laws, sales taxes, and social security taxes are but a few of the well-known examples. Even with all the advances made in machine accounting, there is still the need for understanding basic accounting principles and practices.

The secondary schools have not always adequately met the challenge of offering appropriate bookkeeping courses; however, there is evidence that in some areas of the country graduates of high school programs have been successful. For example, one of the conclusions Ruth G. Sween reached in her study of selected firms in Minnesota was that beginning office workers were best prepared in filing and bookkeeping skills.[1] Observation also indicates that bookkeepers often are well prepared by the high school to do their jobs. The discussion that follows is concerned primarily with those methods and procedures that have been used effectively in helping to accomplish desired outcomes in high school bookkeeping classes.

TEACHER PREPARATION AND BACKGROUND

The effectiveness of classroom procedure is directly related to the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter and the methodology used. Although the certification requirements differ among the states, many authorities agree that at least twelve semester credits of college accounting are desirable for certification to teach bookkeeping. The authors of a recent textbook state:

> The teacher of bookkeeping should be one who, in addition to a broad background in such related subject areas as business law, marketing, management, insurance, and the like, has had at least six and preferably twelve semester hours of college accounting.[2]

A partial survey of the certification requirements of several states confirmed the trend toward the twelve-credit minimum. Also, Thomas B. Maier in his study, "Bookkeeping Achievement as Related to Instructional Methodology," concluded that teachers of high-achieving classes had taught for two or more years and had seven or more semester credits of college accounting.[3]

Most teacher education institutions also require a methods course that includes techniques of presenting the subject matter. The methods instructor in one college further strengthens the training of prospective bookkeeping teachers by having each student do a lesson plan for the introduction of each step of the cycle. One student is called upon to do "practice teaching" using his plan, which combines the learning of subject matter and the application of various techniques.

---

[1] Sween, Ruth G. "A Survey of Employers in Selected Business Firms in Minnesota To Determine the Competency of High School Business Students and Standards in Hiring Employees." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 57; October 1965.

[2] Nolan, C. A.; Hayden, Carlos K.; and Malsbary, Dean R. *Principles and Problems of Business Education*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1967. p. 203.

[3] Maier, Thomas B. "Bookkeeping Achievement as Related to Instructional Methodology." *National Business Education Quarterly* 27: 51; October 1958.

In regard to the desired vocational background of high school bookkeeping teachers, Nolan, Hayden, and Malsbary have said, ". . . business experience on the part of the teacher of an intimate knowledge, preferably from first-hand experience, of how business is organized and managed and of some of the problems that business management must face is of prime importance." [4]

Business educators have long been aware that the value of business experience is immeasurable. Even though it has been difficult for teachers to sacrifice time and money to participate in business activity, bookkeeping teachers are fortunate in that it is comparatively easy for them to gain practical experience because of the demand for their saleable skill. Many of them have taken advantage of the numerous opportunities to gain experience in keeping books. Some have taken summer jobs, and others keep books on a part-time basis for one or more businesses. The latter arrangement is particularly popular in small communities. The bookkeeping teacher is sometimes asked to serve as treasurer of school and community organizations. There is no doubt that these experiences and associations have added to the strength of bookkeeping programs in high schools. In addition to increasing the teacher's understanding of bookkeeping practices, such associations encourage acquaintance with the community and add to the prestige of the school, the business department, and more specifically, the bookkeeping courses.

The Vocational Act of 1963 made it even more appealing for teachers of vocational subjects to gain practical experience, adding strength to an already strong phase of bookkeeping instruction. Under the Act, many states have submitted plans for teachers of bookkeeping to work a specified number of hours in business.

PRESENTATION

Many teachers currently agree that the balance sheet and/or the equation approach to the teaching of bookkeeping are the most effective. One of the conclusions Ethel L. Thompson reached after rather extensive research was that the balance sheet approach *is* the most widely-used approach to the study of bookkeeping.[5]

---

[4] Nolan, Hayden, and Malsbary, *op. cit.*, p. 188.

[5] Thompson, Ethel L. "A Review of Conflicting Opinions in Objectives, Approaches, Testing, and Grading in Elementary High School Bookkeeping Found in the Professional Literature from 1953 to 1963." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 58; October 1965.

It is generally agreed that teaching effectiveness is increased if subject matter is presented in a manner that students can relate to their own experiences. Apparently bookkeeping teachers have been following this practice. In December 1967, Vernon Musselman wrote: ". . . there is an increased awareness on the part of bookkeeping teachers that the basic principles in bookkeeping can be related to the previous common experience of their students."[6] Accepting this premise, the obvious conclusion is that bookkeeping teachers are making the presentation of the subject matter as meaningful as possible.

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

Business departments have coped with the problem of providing adequate work space for bookkeeping students by providing tables that accommodate two pupils each. Many schools have provisions for permanently ruled chalkboards, and others use wall charts. Several colors of chalk have also been used effectively.

The reference tables that are seen in high school bookkeeping classrooms indicate that teachers are encouraging current reading relating to bookkeeping and accounting. Typical materials that have been seen on display are *The Journal of Accountancy, The Accountant's Digest, The Accounting Review,* and financial pages of daily newspapers.

TECHNIQUES, DEVICES, AND AIDS

Perhaps the oldest of all the effective devices used in bookkeeping classes is the well-known "T" account. It is a convenient, simple way to present the relatively complex theory of increase and decrease in accounts. Good results have also been obtained by using a very large "T" when reviewing the bookkeeping equation, listing the assets on the left side and the liabilities and proprietorship on the right. It is also used to help the student more readily understand the rule of debit and credit by having the student see symbols of plus (+) and minus (—) and the appropriate words (debit and credit) correctly placed. This simplest of devices is used extensively, and it is difficult to imagine an attempt to teach bookkeeping effectively without using the "T" account with practically every lesson.

---

[6] Musselman, Vernon A. "Changing Content in Today's Bookkeeping Classes." *Business Education Forum* 22: 9; December 1967.

Business games constructed from data that is available to all secondary school teachers have also been used as a teaching technique in some bookkeeping classes. Their use tends to increase as an awareness of this technique becomes more widespread.

Due to the avalanche of material in recent years about economics, bookkeeping teachers, as well as other teachers, have become economics conscious. Some have integrated economics in their bookkeeping classes by using case problems that arouse interest, help develop better understanding, and enrich the learning.

Modular scheduling, a practice still in its infancy, appears to be particularly well suited for bookkeeping classes. Lesak reported, in December 1967, that in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, the bookkeeping classes were operating on a modular schedule based on 22 time modules per day. (Modules 2 to 22 were 15 minutes each, with 5 minutes passing time.)

The classes met as follows:

Monday—Two modules (35 minutes)
Tuesday—No class
Wednesday—One module (15 minutes)
Thursday—No class
Friday—Three modules (55 minutes)
Total class time: 105 minutes

Lesak also made this statement:

> Innovation for the sake of innovation is obviously foolish; however, to remain at the status quo because we feel secure is just as foolish. To be sure, all the changes are not working as well as we would like. Nevertheless, we feel that our students are better prepared today either to continue their education at the post-high school level or to acquire that first job.[7]

There seems to be no question that such meaningful experimentation, with the results made available to all teachers, is one of the reasons that bookkeeping classes have been successful over the years.

Much has been written about the overhead projector as a teaching device, and it is generally agreed that it is one of the most useful devices used by bookkeeping teachers. The number of teachers using overhead projectors has steadily increased. One of the more obvious of its many advantages is the time that it saves in the classroom. As an example, teachers use the transparencies for checking homework, so that it can begin immediately and progress in a methodical, organized fashion, with help being given at the trouble spots. One study concluded that there is a definite trend in increased learning and retention for students who have been instructed by a teacher using the overhead projector.[8]

---

[7] Lesak, Joseph A. "Changing The Bookkeeping Classroom." *Business Education Forum* 22: 14; December 1967.

TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks have made significant contributions to whatever good results bookkeeping classes have experienced. The bookkeeping teacher is fortunate in having well-organized, easy-to-follow materials at his disposal. The most widely-used textbooks are colorful, with graphic illustrations that conform to business practices. The illustrations help clarify instruction, and the printing of technical terms in italics is helpful to both the teacher and the student. Teachers find that the subject matter is flexible, which is a necessity if a high school bookkeeping program is to meet the vocational requirements of the students.

In addition, publishers furnish manuals, keys, workbooks, study guides, and practice sets to supplement the text material. They also furnish short-answer type tests for each unit of study. The use of these supplementary materials has helped even the teachers with inadequate backgrounds to do an acceptable job of teaching bookkeeping.

MOTIVATION

Bookkeeping teachers use a variety of motivational devices. The practice of placing the best students on part-time jobs is one of them. This practice appears to have motivated others to improve their work in anticipation of being recommended for similar positions. For years teachers have had the better students help the slower ones, providing opportunities for the more capable students to develop qualities of leadership and responsibility, as well as accomplishing the more immediate objective of helping the slower students learn. Superior students also have been used as auditors. More recently, such chores as taking attendance, distributing papers, and checking papers—which present no challenge to the better students—have been assigned to the less capable students. This change in philosophy has been the basis of an excellent motivational device for the less capable student, as such assignments are prestigious and help develop confidence in those who most need it.

---

[8] Singkofer, Martin D. "A Study of the Effectiveness of the Overhead Projector Relative to the Teaching of Bookkeeping in High School." *National Business Education Quarterly* 31: 61; October 1962.

A frequently-used motivational device is to have students select a listed stock and follow its daily or weekly activity in the stock market section of a daily paper. The periodical results are displayed on a graph on the bulletin board. After a predetermined period of time, the winning stock is determined by the highest rate of return.

The awards programs provided by publishers of bookkeeping texts have been used a great deal. These awards for achievement of proficiency stimulate students to strive to earn an award.

CONTENT—RECORDKEEPING OR BOOKKEEPING?

There appears to be a trend to minimize double entry as a requirement of bookkeeping courses. Without this emphasis, the course becomes less than the formal bookkeeping course taught for so long.

> Many teachers have already gone far in this direction and, undoubtedly, will continue to do so. In the New York State Regents Syllabus, for example, competency in the more formalized aspects of double-entry bookkeeping, such as opening and closing entries, setting up work sheets, making financial statements from the work sheet, post-closing adjustment entries, and the like are optional.[9]

In addition to making certain requirements optional, as Tonne discusses, many schools have offered separate courses in recordkeeping. Sister Mary Bertha Hill concluded that many business educators consider recordkeeping a panacea in the business curriculum, for they feel it keeps bookkeeping from being downgraded and provides an opportunity for slow learners to obtain a minimum of basic knowledge of economic principles needed in everyday activities.[10]

Huffman and Shaffer made a similar statement in 1963. "Where before there was practically no agreement, there is now a slight majority of business educators agreeing that recordkeeping should be offered as a separate course parallel to bookkeeping." [11]

---

[9] Tonne, Herbert A. "Anticipating Future Changes in Teaching Bookkeeping." *Business Education Forum,* 22:15; December 1967.

[10] Hill, Sister Mary Bertha. "An Inquiry into the Guidance and Selective Procedures for a Record Keeping Course in the Secondary School." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 55; October 1965.

[11] Huffman, Harry, and Shafer, Richard G. "Desired Outcomes in the Development of other General Education Values in Business Courses". *New Perspectives in Education for Business.* First Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1963. Chapter 10, p. 316.

Musselman is also among the business educators who believe that bookkeeping classes have been meeting the needs of students by teaching the recognized desirable topics. He said:

> Personal-use values are being given special attention in bookkeeping and clerical recordkeeping classes. Writing checks correctly, using a checkbook, and reconciling a bank statement receive broader coverage than formerly. Other types of personal-use records being studied in bookkeeping are insurance records, social security records, interest on notes and installment purchases, receipts for income tax purposes, keeping an inventory of clothing and other personal property, preparing financial graphs, and keeping records for clubs and social organizations.[12]

The inclusion in the content of bookkeeping courses of current information concerning social security taxes and income taxes is evident. Because of the number of young people who work part-time during the school year and/or during the summer months, bookkeeping teachers have become aware of the necessity for students to be able to prepare their own income tax returns. This awareness has generated the teaching of taxes in the high school course. Textbooks now include this very important material, and teachers in increasingly large numbers are using the excellent teaching kits, "Teaching Taxes," which the Internal Revenue Service makes available each year.

More and more people in a position to make the necessary changes are realizing that the bookkeeping course is primarily designed to teach bookkeeping rather than accounting. Still, forward-looking business departments take the opportunity to provide accelerated instruction in bookkeeping and accounting for those students who desire it for purposes of advanced study, potential job placement, or simply because of ability and interest. The need for these dual objectives has been supported by recognized authors.

> More attention should be and is being given to providing the more capable students with high level skills in preparation for the new occupational opportunities that automation and other developments bring.
>
> On the other hand, there is now and will continue to be some demand for bookkeepers. This is evidenced by the number of "Help Wanted" advertisements for general bookkeeping appearing in the newspapers.[13]

---

[12] Musselman, *op. cit.*

[13] Nolan, Hayden, Malsbary, *op. cit.*, p. 223.

The objectives of meeting the vocational needs as well as the personal needs of students have been accomplished by offering two courses, or by attempting to meet the individual needs of each student in one class.

> In some cases the term "recordkeeping" is used to designate the regular course in elementary bookkeeping. Apparently those who have substituted the term "recordkeeping" for the term "bookkeeping" have done so because they feel that the term "bookkeeping" sounds too technical, whereas the term "recordkeeping" sounds less technical and more interesting. In other words, the course is fundamentally a course in bookkeeping presented under a different name. In this case the course in recordkeeping satisfactorily prepares for the advanced bookkeeping course.[14]

Written material suggesting that automated data processing be included in bookkeeping classes is voluminous. Perhaps the teaching of concepts of automation and the relationship of automated processes to the keeping of financial records is all that can be accomplished in the average high school bookkeeping class.

APTITUDE TESTS

The use of aptitude tests to screen students for bookkeeping classes seems to be increasing. The California Achievement Tests I and II covering reading comprehension, the Kuder Preference Record—Vocational, the Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers, the Cooperative English Test, Basic Skills in Arithmetic Test, and intelligence test scores have all been used in an effort to up-grade bookkeeping classes. In addition to these nationally known tests, Byrnside devised his own test and concluded that 50 percent of the students who score in the top quartile on the test will make a grade of *A* or *B* in the first semester of bookkeeping.[15]

VOCATIONAL PREPARATION

The results of many studies show that students tend to take only one year of bookkeeping, which has proved to be sufficient background for beginning officer workers. For that reason, schools offer bookkeeping in the eleventh or twelfth grades, in an effort to have the students take the course as near to actual job application as possible. Today, there are few schools offering bookkeeping at the tenth-grade level.

---

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 205.

[15] Byrnside, Oscar Jehu. "The Validity of an Aptitude Test for Recordkeeping and Bookkeeping." *National Business Educational Quarterly* 31: 13; October 1962.

There has been much study and disagreement about the value of second-year bookkeeping. The very large schools justify the second year by the number of students who enroll. Some smaller schools have worked out an arrangement with higher educational institutions whereby second-year bookkeeping students are permitted to take placement examinations in accounting at the college or university. The very small schools cope with this problem by having students do independent study with the help of the teacher.

Probably one of the most effective things business departments have done in recent years is to place students in part-time jobs while still in school. Schools throughout the country participate in the well-known cooperative work-training programs, such as the vocational office training program in Virginia. Some schools place students even though there is no formal work-training program.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The nature and extent of differences in abilities of students in all subjects has received considerable attention for years. Business educators with particular interest in bookkeeping have not neglected to investigate ways to cope with these differences. For example, Robert L. MacDonald explained how this situation was handled in Maine Township High School East, Park Ridge, Illinois:

> . . . two courses have been provided for the juniors and seniors who want to take bookkeeping. The lower-level students are enrolled in clerical bookkeeping. All others are enrolled in accounting. There are no stated requirements for entrance into either course, but it is recommended that students planning to take accounting have at least a C average in English and mathematics courses.[16]

Teacher opinion was one of the bases for predicting the success of students in either class, and the teachers felt they had fewer misplaced students because of their participation in the evaluation. The department chairman took the responsibility for approving all registrations for either class.

---

[16] MacDonald, Rober D. "There is a Place for All Students in Bookkeeping." *Business Education Forum* 19: 15; December 1964.

Breaking classes into small segments with a combination of good and poor students grouped together has been an effective means of coping with the range of differences of abilities found in bookkeeping classes. This procedure has been found to be superior to the homogeneous grouping that was done for some years.

Sata did research concerning the provisions made for individuals in the teaching of bookkeeping and he concluded:

> The teaching materials and equipment that were highly recommended and extensively used are first-year bookkeeping textbooks, advanced bookkeeping textbooks, textbook-related practice sets, workbooks, and adding machines. The teaching procedures that were highly recommended and extensively used . . . are holding individual conferences, explaining new material, using national bookkeeping tests, allowing group work on practice sets, using students as helpers, and using short quizzes before tests.[17]

RESOURCES

Bookkeeping teachers have taken advantage of many supplemental resources in an effort to make their teaching more effective. Realizing that by providing simulated practical situations they are presenting material in the best manner, bookkeeping teachers have increased the practice of using actual business papers. Banks and other business establishments are cooperative in furnishing forms and papers in sufficient numbers so that students actually complete the forms rather than just see and hear about them.

Guest speakers from such service organizations as the Chamber of Commerce, the Lions Club, Rotary Club, and the like are used in bookkeeping classes. Members of the educational committees of these organizations have proved to be particularly good. Among other things, they discuss the status of business and the role of bookkeeping.

GRADING AND EVALUATION

The quality of classroom instruction has improved since teachers have finally realized that the arduous task of checking every piece of homework serves little purpose; consequently, their time is better spent in preparing for class presentations. They have also become aware that having students make up work long after it was due just for the sake of checking it off in a grade book serves no purpose. The practice work should fit into the learning procedures. The realization that evaluation is a continual process, particularly in bookkeeping, is one of the strengths of good bookkeeping teachers.

---

[17] Sata, Kenichi. "Providing for Individual Differences in the Teaching of Bookkeeping." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 50-51; October 1965.

One of the improved and fair methods of grading in a class such as bookkeeping is for the teacher to prepare a test that he thinks is valid. No attempt is made to restrict the test to 100 points. Points are assigned to questions on the basis of the relative importance of the subject matter. The total number of points is immaterial, for the points earned by a student are converted to a percentage on the distribution scale used, such as 94-100, 86-93, and the like. The letter grade is obtained by dividing the total number of possible points into the total number each student earned, or a letter-grade distribution scale ranging from A to F may be made and applied to the number of points each student has earned. Many bookkeeping teachers who have had this method of grading explained to them in methods courses are using it. Rita Huff reported that she has experienced success with this type of grading.[18]

Although the real understanding of bookkeeping knowledges and skills is not easily measured objectively, the objective test will fairly evaluate a student's performance on isolated material. The publishers' tests are used extensively for this purpose. The total evaluation of the course consists of all facets of each student's participation in the course, including speed and accuracy, neatness, punctuality of submitting work, and so forth. Subjective testing is reserved for those things that cannot be tested objectively, such as the significance of an income statement showing a net loss in one fiscal period.

PROGRAMED INSTRUCTION

It has been said that bookkeeping is particularly well suited for the use of programed materials because of the range of differences in ability found in a typical class of high school bookkeeping. Much research has been done and several experimental classes have been conducted. The strongest points in its favor seem to be that programed material permits students to have continuous participation in the learning process and allows them to advance at their own rate. In some cases programed materials cut learning time. Halverson concluded in his study that students in the experimental group using programed materials did consistently better work.[19]

---

[18] Huff, Rita. "Does Evaluation In Bookkeeping Bother You?" *Business Education Forum* 19: 20; March 1964.

PRACTICE SETS

The wide use of practice sets is another indication of teachers' attempts to have class work duplicate actual work situations as closely as possible. Practice sets have also been found to be particularly helpful to slow learners, for their use puts the whole picture into perspective. Most teachers agree that practice sets are indispensable tools for other reasons, too. Another purpose of the sets is to give practice in actually performing a task by referring to the textbook, by getting help from the teacher or other sources, and by even having teams of students work together to solve the problems. The team idea has been used in classrooms with a great deal of effectiveness. The recent innovation of having the practice in two parts has helped this procedure in that it is easier to keep the class and teams somewhat together, because the slow learner does not "get lost" as easily.

RESEARCH

As is true in all educational fields, much research in bookkeeping is done each year. Certainly one of the strengths of bookkeeping instruction in high schools has been the research that has been done. As an example, Mary M. Donovan analyzed 63 motivational devices that were considered to be most useful and found charts, pictures, and illustrations to be absolute necessities.[20] Donald M. Linn also did a pertinent study concluding that the California Test of Mental Maturity shows a definite relationship to failure or success in beginning bookkeeping.[21]

Such studies indirectly strengthen the teaching of bookkeeping by bringing to the attention of administrators and teachers those things that should or should not be done to furnish superior instruction in high school bookkeeping classes.

---

[19] Haverson, Gaylon L. "The Development and Evaluation of Programed Instruction Materials for Use in Supplementing the Teaching of High School Bookkeeping." *National Business Education Quarterly* 33:25; October 1964.

[20] Donovan, Mary M. "An Analysis and Compilation of Motivation Devices in Bookkeeping." *National Business Education Quarterly* 26:22; October 1957.

[21] Linn, Donald M. "The Predicative Value of Selected Factors for Success in First-Semester Bookkeeping." *National Business Education Quarterly* 27:48; October 1958.

Chapter 6

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

HARRY HUFFMAN, The Ohio State University, Columbus

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part provides suggestions for the classroom teacher for overcoming weaknesses in bookkeeping instruction most frequently mentioned by supervisors. The second part analyzes the results of a survey about weaknesses in vocational bookkeeping and accounting instruction from 65 supervisors.

FIFTEEN SUGGESTIONS FOR BOOKKEEPING CLASSROOM TEACHERS

(In Order of Frequency of Mention by Supervisors)

1. *Secure office work experience* directly related to bookkeeping and accounting. Obtain current work experience in bookkeeping and accounting, preferably where business data processing is in operation; even one summer will be helpful. (See Item 6.)

2. Greatly increase the use of *enrichment materials,* such as actual business forms, papers, and systems; income tax, sales, purchases, inventory, and payroll records; pegboard systems, data processing records, and income tax kits. Obtain a description of the life style of bookkeeping and related occupations through taped interviews, through a study of qualifications and opportunities for employment, and through a survey of perceptions about bookkeeping and related employment.

3. Inventory the *potentials* of students and help them set *vocational objectives.* Some authorities believe that the teacher should spend 25 to 33 percent of his classroom time in student personnel work. (See Item 5.)

4. *Test job competency* by narrative test problems, error correction problems, reasoning tests, condensed accounting cycle problems, and so on.

5. Adapt the instruction to the *backgrounds of the students.* Study their reading and arithmetic abilities, abstract-learning capacities, and their perceptions and attitudes. Adapt instruction to the needs and abilities of the students so that it builds on and extends their previous learning. (See Item 3.)

6. Make *business data processing* central to the course. Take a course in business data processing and gain work experience in an actual business job.

7. Emphasize the *why in bookkeeping instruction.* Consider contrasting and comparing accounts; determining the result if "such and such" is omitted, misrecorded, overstated, understated; correcting of errors; preparing the balance sheet of a firm that has maintained a limited set of records; and so on.

8. *Introduce adding machines.* One for every five students may be needed. Teach and control the use of the machines.

9. Use an *overhead projector* or permanently ruled blackboard as a part of daily instruction. The overhead projector is more flexible than the permanently ruled blackboard, particularly if overlays are used. Teachers should have convenient facilities to make transparencies and overlays. The overhead projector promises to be one of the best single tools available to upgrade instruction.

10. *Test the reasoning powers* of the students. See Item 7 above for suggestions. Use objective-test items to motivate learning, but follow up and grade on the basis of narrative-type problems.

11. Establish *standards of achievement.* Invite several accountants, college professors of accounting, and other bookkeeping teachers to establish model test items suitable for evaluating the results of instruction. Be sure that items are representative of job tasks typically faced by bookkeeping and accounting employees.

12. Plan *a program of instruction* for bookkeeping and accounting. The local supervisor or department head should bring teachers together to decide whether or not it should be a sequence of courses such as

general business, business arithmetic, recordkeeping, bookkeeping, data processing, and office procedure.

13. *Organize classes reasonably homogeneously.* Provide for recordkeeping, bookkeeping, and accounting classes at the high school level. Let students enter at the level best for them and proceed as far as possible.

14. Base vocational bookkeeping and accounting classes on *jobs now in existence.* While vocational instruction should strive to give the broadest understanding of bookkeeping and accounting possible, it should still prepare students for entry jobs. The teacher should gather samples of job tasks, analyze them, and teach them as a part of regular instruction.

15. *Improve accounting background.* Numerous experienced teachers find it stimulating to re-enter a basic accounting course or to pursue an advanced course to up-date and modernize their own backgrounds. These experiences are exceptionally valuable when the teachers are competing with potential young accountants or are enrolled in metropolitan universities in which the instructor is not only a good teacher but also a practicing accountant.

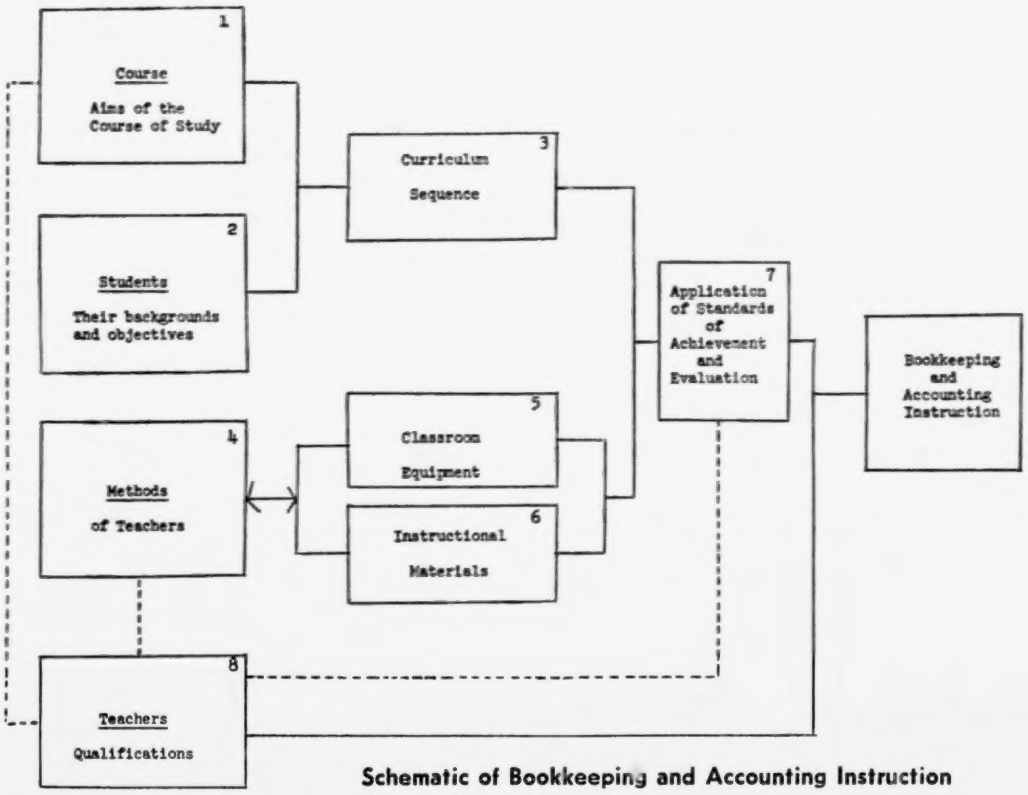
ANALYSIS OF WEAKNESSES

The flow chart displayed on the next page shows eight factors that contribute to bookkeeping and accounting instruction. By examining the factors and their interrelationships one can determine potential weaknesses and opportunities for improvement. Obviously, this flow chart is only one of several that can be used to examine bookkeeping and accounting instruction.

The flow chart contains three main flows contributing to the picture:

1. A combination of course aims and students' objectives
2. Methods interacting with classroom equipment and instructional materials (notice the reverse arrow)
3. Teachers' qualifications.

The first flow shows how the aims of the courses of study and the backgrounds and objectives of the students contribute to a determination of the curriculum sequence. Alternately, the curriculum sequence is evaluated by standards of achievement, alternately leading to a picture of bookkeeping and accounting instruction.


1
Course
Aims of the Course of Study
2
Students
Their backgrounds and objectives
3
Curriculum
Sequence
4
Methods
of Teachers
5
Classroom
Equipment
6
Instructional
Materials
7
Application of Standards of Achievement and Evaluation
Bookkeeping and Accounting Instruction
8
Teachers
Qualifications

Schematic of Bookkeeping and Accounting Instruction

The second flow shows how the teachers' methods determine the classroom equipment and the instructional materials used. Conversely, the equipment and the instructional materials available also control teachers' methods. Sometimes the basic textbook is not chosen by the teacher. The teacher does, however, have a great deal to say about the quantity and quality of supplementary materials that are brought to bear on teaching processes. This flow should have an effect on the establishment of standards of achievement and certainly on the evaluation of instruction and finally on the over-all picture of bookkeeping and accounting instruction.

The third flow, qualifications of the teachers, affects many aspects of the other two flows. It affects the functional course of study, the efforts to investigate the backgrounds and objectives of the students, the development of a curriculum and methods, and the utilization of classroom equipment and instructional materials.

A weakness or an unresolved problem in the factors at the left of the flow chart will reduce potential strengths in the items at the right.

For example, a poor course of study weakens the curriculum sequence which in turn will probably lead to an ineffectual outcome and hence a poor picture of bookkeeping and accounting instruction.

With the flow chart as a vehicle for analysis, a questionnaire covering eight factors on the flow chart was sent to 77 state and city supervisors. All head state supervisors and a number of city supervisors were included in the mailing. The list of city supervisors was prepared from periodical literature. Returns were received from 65 supervisors. The respondents were requested to check as many items for each question as they believed appropriate. Thus, the checks on any single question may total more than 65.

Content

The first question and the distribution of responses appear below.

1. What problems and weaknesses, if any, do you observe about teachers' typical statements concerning the AIMS? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
41	Lacked relation to data processing
25	Based on jobs no longer in existence
24	Not based on surveys and research
19	Stated too generally
5	Are nonexistent
3	No problems or weaknesses observed

Forty-one supervisors made the observation that the aims of the course of study did not include business data processing; 25 said that the aims seemed to be based on jobs no longer in existence; 24 thought the aims were not based on surveys; and 19 said that the aims were stated too generally. According to these responses, the aims of bookkeeping and accounting instruction need to be clarified and restated. One supervisor reported, "There really aren't any aims expressed any more. This course has just drifted to its present low status."

Students' Backgrounds and Objectives

The second factor is concerned with the backgrounds and objectives of the students. A supposition about good instruction is that it will be adapted to the backgrounds and potentials of the students. Students who have a high level of reading ability, are facile in arithmetic, and have some competency in dealing with the abstract tend to make better bookkeeping students. The reverse is also true. A student with no clear objective tends to be an unwilling learner. A student who recognizes the course as having no relation to his objectives will probably be alienated from the course. The question put to the supervisors and their answers appear below.

2. What problems and weaknesses, if any, do you observe about adaptation of the instruction to the BACKGROUNDS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDENTS? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
47	Little or no effort to develop or discover the vocational objectives and potentials of the students
42	Little or no effort to adapt the instruction to the backgrounds of the students
27	Teachers are confronted with too wide a range of ability
4	No problems and weaknesses observed

There seems to be considerable agreement among the supervisors that at present little or no effort is made to discover the vocational objectives and potentials of the students. Furthermore, litttle effort seems to be made to adapt the instruction to the backgrounds of the students. Perhaps the difficulties of the teachers are that they are not wholly clear on the vocational objectives of the bookkeeping and accounting course and in consequence have no way of helping the students clarify their objectives. Twenty-seven supervisors thought teachers were confronted with too wide a range of ability. It has been postulated that because of the nature of the subject matter and its cycle development it is easier to work with a relatively homogeneous group of students.

Curriculum Sequence

According to the flow chart, weaknesses in course aims and an understanding of student objectives and potentials will be reflected in the curriculum. A question was asked of the supervisors about the curriculum sequence, and their answers appear below.

3. What problems and weaknesses, if any, do you see about the typical bookkeeping and accounting CURRICULUM in the schools you observe or visit? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
27	The curriculum is merely a tabulation of courses rather than a planned program of instruction
19	The curriculum is too narrow
16	No real curriculum exists
12	The curriculum is merely an extension of the stenographic or secretarial curriculum
5	No problems or weaknesses seen

The most severe criticism about the curriculum (27 responses) was that it was a tabulation of courses and not a planned program of instruction. The weaknesses of the two inputs to the curriculum sequence leads one to think that a well-developed bookkeeping and accounting curriculum at the high school level does not exist.

Methods

The methods, which in this particular report determine to some extent the use of classroom equipment and instructional materials, are also a basic input into an analysis of bookkeeping and accounting courses. The question put to the supervisors and their answers appear below.

4. What problems and weaknesses, if any, do you observe about the TEACHING METHODS used? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
41	Failure to emphasize "why"
21	Little or no attention given to penmanship
20	Ineffective use of the blackboard
20	Little or no attention given to remedial instruction in business arithmetic
20	Failure on the part of the teacher to organize instruction carefully
19	Little or no previewing of assignments given to students
7	Little or no real teaching evident
5	Students fail to keep busy in class
3	No problem or weaknesses observed

The most serious weakness observed by the supervisors was the lack of emphasis on "why." Other weaknesses mentioned included little or no attention given to penmanship, ineffective use of the blackboard, little or no remedial instruction in business arithmetic, failure to organize instruction, and little or no previewing of assignments.

Classroom Equipment

Methods depend on classroom equipment available; and likewise, effective methods lead to the use of equipment. Frequently teachers who have clear aims and superior methods are able to persuade school administrators to budget for appropriate equipment. The questions presented to the supervisors and their answers follow.

5. What weaknesses and problems, if any, do you observe about classroom EQUIPMENT for bookkeeping and accounting instruction in the schools you visit? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
35	No adding machines available
35	No calculators available
35	No convenient overhead projector or other projection equipment available
33	No permanently ruled blackboards
31	No facilities to make transparencies
16	Inadequate desk space
9	Inadequate blackboard facilities
8	Only arm chairs available
4	No problems or weaknesses observed

Instructional Materials

Parallel on the diagram to equipment are instructional materials. The following was reported by the supervisors.

6. What weaknesses and problems, if any, do you observe about the INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS for the bookkeeping and accounting classes? (65 respondents)

No. of Checks	Problem
47	Lack of the use of enrichment materials, for example, a pegboard system
17	Failure to use income tax materials available from the U.S. Internal Revenue Service
14	Poor utilization of workbooks
12	Limited use of practice sets
8	Failure to use a current textbook
7	No problems or weaknesses observed

The supervisors reported rather widely the lack of use of enrichment materials. It is not certain whether these materials were unavailable or whether teachers need help in learning how to make them a part of their instructional activity. Perhaps groups of teachers need to attack the problem under the leadership of supervisors and develop some specific up-to-date lists of materials and descriptions and procedures for enriching the course.

Items 4, 5, and 6 on the flow chart are highly interrelated. The methods of teachers should rightfully determine the selection and utilization of classroom equipment and instructional materials. Weaknesses or strengths in any one of the three items negatively or positively reinforce one another so that the result is reflected in a good or poor evaluation of bookkeeping and accounting instruction.

Standards of Achievement and Evaluation

All the network to the left of Item 7, Application of Standards of Achievement and Evaluation, are its inputs. A vital objective of the program is to turn out students who can accept initial employment and progress to increased responsibility. Only one phase of evaluation was queried. The question and answers follow:

7. What problems and weaknesses, if any, do you discover about STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION?

No. of Checks	Problem
45	Little or no effort is made to test job competency as the result of instruction, for example, narrative test problems
32	Little or no effort is made to test reasoning
29	No clearcut standards have been established
27	Testing is limited to objective-test items
3	No problems or weaknesses observed

It can be seen that weaknesses in the vocational aims of the course are reflected by the fact that 45 supervisors reported little or no effort is made to test job competency as the result of instruction. The report by 32 supervisors that little or no effort is made to test reasoning seems to be an outgrowth of "failure to emphasize why," which was discussed previously. The report of 27 that "testing is limited to objective test items" also bears this out. Additionally, it should be noticed that 29 said that they observed no clear-cut standards. Hence, it does appear that the network attached to standards of achievement and evaluation demonstrates some of the distinct problems and weaknesses in bookkeeping and accounting instruction.

Teachers' Qualifications

It can be assumed that nearly all business teachers are certified to teach bookkeeping and accounting. It takes more than certification to make a good teacher. The question asked of the supervisors and their answers follow.

8. What weaknesses, if any, do you observe about QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS?

No. of Checks	Problem
54	Limited office experience related to the bookkeeping and accounting occupations
21	Inadequate background in accounting
15	Inadequate background in educational methods
3	No weaknesses observed

According to the flow chart, teachers' qualifications are a direct input into an analysis of the total program. However, teachers' qualifications actually affect all seven other items in the network. Certainly teachers' qualifications have a great deal to do with clarity of objectives. They largely determine teachers' methods and they affect the establishment of standards of achievements and evaluation.

SUMMARY

The foregoing discussion based on the flow chart and the data gathered from 65 business and office education supervisors was an objective effort to establish some of the current weaknesses in bookkeeping and accounting instruction. Current efforts by the Business Education Study Committee in a massive study of the total business curriculum may discover new directions for bookkeeping instruction. In the meantime, much can be done to improve as suggested in the "Fifteen Suggestions for Bookkeeping Classroom Teachers" at the beginning of this chapter.

LIST OF RESPONDENTS

The respondents to the survey include the following: L. E. Bak, Pierre, South Dakota; R. D. Balthaser, Columbus, Ohio; Charles H. Boterf, Augusta, Maine; Mildred Brading, Little Rock, Arkansas; Charles L. Bright, Frankfort, Kentucky; John M. Bunch, North Carolina; Leonard T. Carpenter, Portland, Oregon; Eva S. Carr, Montgomery, Alabama; W. L. Clark, Denver, Colorado; William Clynes, Connecticut; Hobart H. Conover, Albany, New York; Marguerite Crumley, Richmond, Virginia; Eugene L. Dorr, Phoenix, Arizona; D. Draper, Nashville, Tennessee; George F. Dunn, Phoenix, Arizona; John E. Elias, Lincoln, Nebraska; Weldon Else, Des Moines, Iowa; Everett W. Fuller, Austin, Texas; Virgil D. Gehring, Bismark, North Dakota; Larry Geiser, Boise, Idaho; Raymond J. Grandfield, Cheyenne, Wyoming; Samuel M. Greer, Columbia, South Carolina; Charles E. Guatney, Montpelier, Vermont; Raymond W. Heley, Helena, Montana; Earl E. Haloas, Michigan; Jim Houstman, Santa Fe, New Mexico; Harvey S. Jackson, Mississippi; Bessie Kaufmann, Los Angeles, California; Louise J. Keller, Wichita, Kansas; Gilbert Koller, Seattle, Washington; Ruth Lee, Portsmouth, Virginia; Robert L. Manning, Boston, Massachusetts; Arthur J. Maynard, Charleston, West Virginia; Russell J. Mercer, Atlanta, Georgia; Vita C. Metta, Cleveland Ohio; Charles A. Newman, Jefferson City, Missouri; Charles G. Nix, Nashville, Tennessee; Bernard Ohm, Illinois; E. Charles Parker, Salt Lake City, Utah; Paul P. Plevyak, Towson, Maryland; Ethel Plock, Louisville, Kentucky; Jeanne Reed, Detroit, Michigan; Dennis E. Roley, Olympia, Washington; Ray G. Schweet, Dover, Delaware; William Selden, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; Jack W. Smythe, Wisconsin; Daniel Spaight, Rhode Island; Mary Sufana, East Chicago, Illinois; Mary E. Tronsue, Annapolis, Maryland; Victor Van Hook, Stillwater, Oklahoma; George W. Vanover, Frankfort, Kentucky; D. Macil Via, Raleigh, North Carolina; Carrol E. Waggoner, Miami, Florida; Alvin Weitz, Trenton, New Jersey; Mary Witherow, St. Louis, Missouri; and Merle Wood, Oakland, California. Nine additional respondents wished to have their names withheld.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR BOOKKEEPERS AND RELATED WORKERS

Chapter 7

Projections for the Future

SARA E. ANDERSON, Marshall University, Huntington, West Virginia

The future of bookkeeping instruction in secondary schools depends upon many factors which the business educator is forced to consider. He must look at the past, appraise critically the strengths and weaknesses of the program, and compare these results with the demands of business organizations that employ the product of our schools. To enable those responsible for designing and implementing the effective programs of instruction, business education leaders must seek information about and formulate answers to such questions as:

1. What are the significant aims of bookkeeping?
2. In which business programs should bookkeeping be offered?
3. What are the teaching methods that will enable teachers to reach these goals?
4. What instructional materials and equipment are necessary for effective teaching?
5. What are the essential components of the curriculum to educate future teachers of bookkeeping?

It is reasonable to assume that bookkeeping is here to stay. Today managerial decisions on every level of business depend more and more on up-to-date financial records. The complexity of modern business has increased the necessity for accounting records and, at the same time, has created changes in the nature and form of information needed. As a result, corresponding changes are needed in the preparation of future workers in bookkeeping and accounting positions.

AIMS OF BOOKKEEPING

For years, business teachers have subscribed to two major aims of bookkeeping—the vocational objective for those who are entering business positions, and the personal-use objective for those who need help in performing their daily business transactions effectively. It seems that these will continue to be the two major functions of bookkeeping in the secondary school. This does not mean that bookkeeping as it has been taught will continue to be adequate. There must be more emphasis given to mastery and interpretation of principles and less importance placed on the specific method or procedure. Therefore the teacher of the future will find that the aims of bookkeeping will include the following goals:

1. To provide an understanding of bookkeeping concepts needed to perform successfully the business transactions encountered in personal, social, and economic activities
2. To build a foundation of bookkeeping skills, competencies, and terminology essential for the additional study required for the performance of bookkeeping activities in business occupations
3. To develop the skills, knowledges, and understandings needed to execute the bookkeeping duties assigned to clerical workers
4. To enable students to gain a complete mastery of the theory of double-entry bookkeeping
5. To develop competency in analyzing, journalizing, and posting transactions and in using various types of books of original and final entry
6. To understand thoroughly the bookkeeping cycle and the ralationship of each cycle step to the entire process
7. To gain a knowledge of the function and importance of business papers, forms, and machines, and to develop the ability to use these efficiently in performing bookkeeping activities
8. To handle cash and banking transactions effectively
9. To keep accurate records of transactions dealing with sales, purchases, and inventory information
10. To acquire competence in handling payroll and tax records and reports

11. To develop the ability to prepare and to interpret financial statements
12. To become acquainted with the principles, applications, and importance of automated data processing in bookkeeping procedures.

THE PLACE OF BOOKKEEPING IN THE CURRICULUM

Those who are responsible for designing and implementing curricular patterns are faced with the challenge of providing educational experiences for prospective employees to succeed in an era of constant change. These changes in the working environment are the result of many different factors and conditions. The major factors seem to be:

1. Scientific and technological advancements that have provided new machinery and more efficient methods of performing office work.
2. Increasing demands for information needed to supply reports required by government regulations, labor organizations, and stockholders.
3. The constant demand by management for data that is essential for effective decision making in the highly competitive economic system.

Changes in the role of the office have effected changes in the duties assigned to office workers. Personnel who formerly performed routine, repetitive tasks have been replaced by automated equipment. These workers have been forced to acquire new skills and competencies to continue to be employed. New employees need a different type of education. The narrow training emphasizing how to perform simple tasks must be replaced by a broad educational program that stresses competency built upon understanding and application of basic principles. The purpose of the vocational business curriculum must be to provide a program that will educate students to function effectively in the modern office.

The primary objective of the business office is to provide information in the most usable form to the people who need it when they need it. Bookkeeping and accounting methods, procedures, and systems permeate the entire office; therefore, all levels of office occupations will include recordkeeping activities in some form.

The clerical worker, whether employed in store or in office occupations, performs certain bookkeeping functions. In order to prepare workers for these positions, the people who are responsible for planning the sequence of courses for clerical workers should include bookkeeping as a major part of the program. These employees need to develop competency in performing bookkeeping procedures and to acquire a working knowledge of the basic principles involved. These skills and knowledges are essential for securing the initial job and for future advancement.

The individual who is interested in securing a position in the automated data processing field also needs to have bookkeeping as an integral part of his basic education. It is in the processing of bookkeeping and accounting information that electronic data processing has made its greatest advancements.

The future owners and managers of farms and small retail or service businesses will find that a knowledge of bookkeeping principles and procedures is an essential factor in the success of their enterprises. Students who are following any vocational curriculum—agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, cosmetology, automobile mechanics, and the like—should have bookkeeping required as a part of their planned program of studies.

The stenographic or secretarial employee will find that a knowledge of bookkeeping will be valuable because it includes principles of business organization and practices, terminology used in business communications, and basic understandings needed in compiling information for various reports. The promotional opportunities in stenographic and secretarial positions depend upon additional competencies which enable the worker to understand more clearly the relationship of his particular job to the entire operation of the business enterprise. A knowledge of bookkeeping will help to provide these workers with the ability to recognize this relationship.

The student who plans to embark upon a career in accounting will find that his program of courses in high school should include more than one year of bookkeeping instruction. The background that he can secure through two full years of study will enable him to progress more rapidly in advanced courses in higher education. If he chooses to accept employment in the accounting department of a business firm and enroll in evening classes, he will be benefited greatly in both phases of his work by being able to apply the basic principles, understandings, and procedures which he mastered in the bookkeeping curriculum in secondary school.

Likewise, the business curriculum in the secondary school should provide for the students who do not plan to enter business employment requiring bookkeeping skills. These students will find it increasingly valuable to them to be able to keep records for the various organizations in which they participate and for their personal business transactions. The ability to reconcile a bank account, to prepare income tax reports, to work with negotiable instruments, and to understand financial reports dealing with current civic, political, and personal problems will enable many persons to function more effectively as citizens.

Those who are responsible for planning the secondary school curriculum have a responsibility to see that instruction in bookkeeping is made available to all students who can profit from it. In larger schools where there are several sections offered, consideration should be given to the possibility of grouping students according to their interests and career plans. This will enable teachers to provide more successfully for the wide range of individual differences in ability and interests that are present among the high school youth who study bookkeeping.

THE BOOKKEEPING METHODOLOGY FOR TEACHERS

The role of the teacher in the bookkeeping classroom will have to assume new dimensions to meet the demands of the computer age. The teacher will find that a simple short lecture followed by the brief assignment of "to work problem 23" will no longer be sufficient for class instruction. In such a learning situation, students will not acquire the knowledges needed or the understandings essential for future employment.

The methods that a teacher may employ are as varied as the methods that businesses use to perform bookkeeping duties. The teacher faces a greater challenge than ever in choosing and planning the appropriate learning experiences for students possessing a wide range of abilities and interests. In one class session the teacher will find it essential to use a combination of teaching methods to achieve the objectives.

Before determining the method or methods to be used, the teacher should consider the students enrolled, their abilities, interests, and levels of maturity; the objectives of the lesson; the time required and the cost of any additional supplies or materials; and his competency in using the various methods. These factors will affect the degree of success that the teacher can achieve from the learning experience. Some of the methods available to the teacher are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The Lecture

This method may be successful when the material to be presented is short and the lecture is reinforced by other techniques, such as visual aids. Very few high school students will benefit greatly from a straight lecture which occupies more than ten to fifteen minutes of the class period. However if there is a resource person from a local business who has the ability to speak on the level that is easily understood by all class members, a lecture by him could prove to be both enlightening and motivating to bookkeeping students.

The Demonstration

One of the best methods of teaching bookkeeping is the demonstration, because it enables students to follow the accepted procedures, to understand the effect of transactions on different accounts, and to develop the relationships needed for complete understanding of the principles and procedures employed.

Before attempting to demonstrate, the teacher must be thoroughly familiar with the specific purpose of the demonstration, completely competent to perform, and fully aware of the steps or parts which are most likely to cause difficulties. Time must be allotted to repeat any part of the demonstration and to answer any questions which may arise as a result of the work. Immediately following the demonstration, students should be given the opportunity to apply what was presented and to develop the skills and understandings essential for future application.

The Drill

Drill has an important place in the bookkeeping learning environment because meaningful practice is essential to develop some skills to the highest level. For example, several short practice or drill periods may be needed to review and apply mathematical fundamentals, to reconcile bank statements, and to master the theory of debits and credits. The student response will enable the teacher to spot other difficulties and to plan remedial drills to strengthen the previous learnings. If the best results are to be derived from drills, the teacher must accept the responsibility for planning several short practice periods spaced over a period of time, for being sure that each person knows the correct procedure to be followed, and for seeing that students understand the purpose and the importance of the drill.

The Discussion

The teacher must introduce the topic to be discussed in such a way that students become interested, develop an inquiring attitude conducive to critical thinking, and gain experience in evaluating ideas. After a brief explanation, students are encouraged to ask questions and/or to contribute any further information.

This method has many applications in bookkeeping classes. There must be discussion in order to understand the tasks to be completed, to develop an orderly procedure to be followed, and to recognize the purpose or the necessity for the work. Through the use of this method, the entire class may participate in a discussion or the teacher may arrange for panel discussions concerning current bookkeeping practices, changes in tax laws, and the impact of automation on future methods and procedures. Participants for these panel discussions may be employees in accounting firms or students who have visited businesses or investigated the literature concerning various topics.

The discussion may take the form of a debate with several pairs of students presenting various aspects of controversial issues. The buzz group is another discussion technique in which class members are assigned to groups to explore a topic. At the close of a definite period of time the reporter from each group would present a summary of the discussion. In this way all members of the class are given time to express themselves in a smaller, less formal situation. Since the teacher is trying to encourage students to contribute their ideas and experiences, the discussion method generally requires more time than the lecture or demonstration method.

Problem Solving

The greatest advantage of the problem-solving method is that it helps the student develop some techniques that he may use in finding a solution to the problems he will meet in performing bookkeeping duties on the job. In this method, the student is required to determine what the problem is, to recognize how some of the information he already has relates to the problem, to consider possible sources of further information, and to offer a tentative solution, or solutions, to the problem. There are many reasons for using this method, but chief among them is the development of the ability of the student to meet changes. If he is taught one way of performing a task and never given an opportunity to question other possible ways to accomplish the work or to recognize existing relationships, he will be unprepared for the changes that will occur as a result of improved and new developments in technology in the computer age.

This method is especially important for the talented student who has the ability to grasp concepts easily. The slower student may not be able to clarify the problem, to recognize that certain elements in the previous training are integral parts of the new situation, to make the modifications necessary in present procedures, or to create and evaluate possible solutions to existing problems.

The use of closed circuit television and instant replays would greatly enhance learning through problem solving. This medium would give students additional knowledge of the current bookkeeping practices in businesses that are being used to meet similar problems. The role of the teacher would be to help identify and interpret these activities for the student.

Other Methods

Team teaching is a method that could be used effectively in bookkeeping classes. By specializing in various aspects of bookkeeping, a teacher could become expert in the vast amount of knowledge and the many different practices in a limited area. Much time could be spent by the specialist in adapting the material to the maturity level of the students. As a result, the student would gain greatly from learning experiences that use the business community as a basis for presenting and applying the basic principles incorporated in the modern textbooks.

Programed learning materials and practice sets in bookkeeping and data processing fulfill the important need of providing students with experiences needed to achieve additional goals in bookkeeping. Since it appears that our business society will become more complex and more mechanized, those responsible for curriculum and course content in secondary schools will find that they face an enormous challenge in planning the students' educational experiences for future bookkeeping positions. They will no longer be able to ignore the possibility of, or the responsibility for, incorporating a knowledge and understanding of sophisticated hardware that business has accepted as standard equipment for carrying out bookkeeping and accounting work.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL AND EQUIPMENT

There will be a different look to the bookkeeping classroom of the future. The simple room furnished with only tables, chairs, a chalkboard, and a bulletin board will be replaced by one that includes sliding chalkboards, several kinds of projectors—overhead, opaque, combination slide and film strip, and movie—and machines. In addition, there will be equipment to use videotape that will show the bookkeeping activities in business offices. This equipment will allow for instant replays combined with closed circuit television so that the student can easily grasp what is happening in the office. These techniques will make it possible for him to gain a knowledge of how the same principles and procedures of bookkeeping that he is learning to perform manually will be done in business with the use of bookkeeping machines and electronic data processing equipment. Students will develop an understanding of the relationship that exists among the various media, which is so important in the education of future employees to meet the constant changes that are occuring in business activities.

Typewriters, as well as adding, calculating, and bookkeeping machines, will become a vital part of the standard equipment used in the classroom. Materials also will be different. Individual differences may be taken care of effectively through programed instruction materials. Actual business papers will be found more frequently in the classroom and will be used with the opaque or overhead projectors. Transparencies will continue to play a most important part in the instructional program, as will workbooks and practice sets that supplement the textbooks.

In order to insure that students understand and develop a working knowledge of some of the basic automated equipment, some schools will find it advisable to rent data processing equipment for a short period of time.

Facilities must be provided that will allow maximum use of the materials, teaching aids, and equipment that are now vital to the success of the bookkeeping program. It must be recognized that such a program will require more space, movable furniture of the same kind found in modern bookkeeping and accounting firms, adequate electrical outlets for the projectors and the machines, and storage space for supplies and materials.

THE PREPARATION OF BOOKKEEPING TEACHERS

The tremendous job that faces the bookkeeping teacher of the future will demand that the teacher receive the knowledges and skills necessary to understand and adjust to the constant changes that are occurring in bookkeeping systems and procedures. Moreover the teacher must be able to guide and direct learning experiences of students effectively. In order to prepare teachers who are capable of functioning efficiently in preparing bookkeeping students to meet the demands of business enterprises, the educational program of prospective teachers must include four basic areas defined as:

1. A broad background of general education
2. A foundation in business and economics
3. A thorough knowledge of professional education
4. A comprehensive student teaching experience.

General education comprises a most valuable part of the education of bookkeeping teachers. It provides a core that helps the teacher develop an understanding of American culture, of the relation of science to that culture, of the basis of our society in the democratic ideal, and of the concept of personality formation. This core forms an integral part of the education of all people and particularly for teachers in all subject fields. In addition, general education forms the important basis upon which the further specialized knowledges and competencies are built. The understandings and appreciations that are developed in this phase of the educational program enable the teacher to formulate generalizations and relationships that are necessary for interpretation and application of basic principles of business in our economic society. The bookkeeping teacher will find it more essential than ever to be able to:

1. Communicate effectively
2. Apply fundamental mathematical concepts
3. Read with understanding
4. Recognize and solve problems
5. Understand and work with other individuals
6. Adjust to changes in business systems and procedures
7. Acquire skills in research techniques.

A good program in general education will assist the teacher in acquiring and developing these basic skills and knowledges.

The second phase of the educational requirements for the bookkeeping teacher involves a solid foundation in business principles and an understanding of their application in our economy. The business teacher must have an appreciation of the American business system and how it operates. A mastery of economics and of the related disciplines, such as finance, management, law, and marketing, will enable the teacher to become aware of the significance of our economic system and of the relationship to the bookkeeping-accounting area.

Along with these business administration subject areas, the bookkeeping teacher will have to acquire depth in the field of accounting. This depth, coupled with the principles of electronic data processing and the application of computers to the work of bookkeepers, will provide the basic specialized knowledges and skills needed by the teacher.

The third part of the preparation of the bookkeeping teacher is concerned with the area of professional education. It is this phase of the program that enables the teacher to develop a foundation of education and of business education. The professional program generally includes a study of:

1. The role of education in our society
2. Philosophy and objectives of secondary schools
3. Curricular programs of high schools
4. Human growth and development
5. Theories of learning
6. Specialized methods of teaching.

Business teachers, and bookkeeping teachers in particular, will need help in relating the general professional courses to business education. They must be given assistance in formulating their beliefs concerning philosophy, principles, and objectives of business education. They must also become thoroughly familiar with effective methodology for teaching business courses and have an opportunity to relate the methods employed to culture and to the principles of teaching. The goal of the teacher should be that of aiding the student to learn, to be critical, to recognize problems, to establish alternatives, and to formulate generalizations.

Devices that are consistent with these goals should be employed. For example, a memorization of the techniques that may be used to compute cost of goods sold or net profit will not provide the basis for reflective thinking required in problem-solving activities. Since this is a world in which changes in scientific development, in technology, in culture, in the role of governments, and in the role of business are becoming more drastic each year, teachers must accept the responsibility for educating students to adjust to these changes. Rote learning from textbooks alone will not enhance this adjustment.

Courses in methodology must give teachers the background needed to assume the responsibility for helping students gain this basis for change. In order to achieve this, the teacher will find it essential to have a good foundation in general principles and objectives of business and vocational education, in curricular patterns, in effective measurement procedures, in classroom organization and management, and in the selection and use of equipment and teaching materials.

The student teaching experience is considered a vital part of the preparation of a teacher and comprises from 40 to 50 percent of the total time and effort expended in professional education. It is in this part of the program that the prospective bookkeeping teacher has the opportunity to put together in teaching-learning situations the processes, theories, and understandings previously developed in basic courses. With the needs, problems, and interests of students as the focus of attention, the teacher learns to utilize knowledge—of the community, of growth and development, of learning, of democratic social values, of the purposes of education—to plan, develop, and evaluate learning experiences. Through working with students and teachers, the student teacher discovers, uses, and appraises group processes that promote effective human relations. The prospective teacher realizes that reading and discussion alone will not offer experiences essential for attaining the goals of becoming a successful bookkeeping teacher.

This type of education will take place only where the experiences are meaningful and purposeful. Therefore, those who are responsible for planning and executing programs in student teaching for the prospective bookkeeping teacher must include experiences that are varied and extensive enough to give him an opportunity to participate in and learn how to do most of the important tasks involved in the activities of a teacher. These experiences and activities include those of the classroom, the whole school, and the community. Within these boundaries, the teacher must gain experience in presenting problems and principles of bookkeeping; in using bookkeeping, adding, and calculating machines; in providing a background in and understanding of data processing systems and procedures; and in relating the work of the classroom to the business community.

A teacher education program that fails to incorporate these four vital components will produce teachers who will find it increasingly difficult to perform adequately the many functions which will become an accepted part of the role of the bookkeeping teacher.

The success of bookkeeping in the future will be dependent upon forward-looking educators who:

1. Constantly strive to evaluate and revise the bookkeeping program to meet the needs of prospective workers
2. Seek the advice and cooperation of businessmen in determining the content and in providing the essential facilities to achieve the goals
3. Design teacher education programs which include the components necessary to prepare bookkeeping teachers to meet the challenges of change.

SELECTED REFERENCES

American Business Education Yearbook. *The Clerical Program.* Sixteenth Yearbook. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1959.

American Business Education Yearbook. *Evaluation of Pupil Progress in Business Education.* Seventeenth Yearbook. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1960.

BOYNTON, LEWIS D. *Methods of Teaching Bookkeeping.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1955.

BURNS, THOMAS J., and HENDRICKSON, HARVEY S. *The Accounting Sampler, An Introduction.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.

DAUGHTREY, ANNE SCOTT. *Methods of Basic Business and Economic Education.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1965.

DOUGLAS, LLOYD V.; BLANFORD, JAMES; and ANDERSON, RUTH I. *Teaching Business Subjects.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Eastern Business Teachers Association Yearbook. *Administration and Supervision of Business Education.* Thirty-ninth Yearbook. Somerville, N. J.: Somerset Press, 1966.

Eastern Business Teachers Association Yearbook. *Business Education for the Automated Office.* Thirty-seventh Yearbook. Somerville, N. J.: Somerset, Press, 1964.

Eastern Business Teachers Association Yearbook. *Developing Vocational Competency in Bookkeeping and Accounting.* Fortieth Yearbook. Somerville, N. J.: Somerset Press, 1967.

MUSSELMAN, VERNON A., and HANNA, J. MARSHALL. *Teaching Bookkeeping and Accounting*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960.

National Business Education Association. *Recent and Projected Developments Affecting Business Education*. Second Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association a department of the National Education Association, 1964.

National Business Education Association. *New Media in Teaching the Business Subjects*. Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1965.

National Business Education Association. *Business Education Meets the Challenges of Change*. Fourth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1966.

National Business Education Association. *Selected Readings in Business and Office Occupations*. Fifth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1967.

TONNE, HERBERT A.; POPHAM, ESTELLE L.; and FREEMAN, M. HERBERT. *Methods of Teaching Business Subjects,* Third Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965.

3. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR CLERICAL WORKERS

Chapter 8

Strengths of the Past and Present

MARY MARGARET BRADY, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville

The strengths of the clerical program and its essential role in business education in the past and present are best revealed by examining the total image of business education today. This image reveals four areas of learning: secretarial, bookkeeping, retailing or distributive education, and general clerical. True, general clerical is listed as the last area, and rightfully so, since it is the one most recently developed.

The period of growth of the clerical program extends over approximately forty years, from about 1930, with a rapid growth rate occurring during the 1950's. While the clerical program is now an established area, to state that it is a stabilized program would indicate a weakness rather than a strength. As in the other major areas, there must be constant modification in line with new developments in office technology. Changes in the clerical program as a result of the new technology may be faster and more radical in nature than those in the other three areas of business education. The strengths of the clerical program lie in its contribution to the over-all program in business education and in the flexibility of its offerings based on current technological developments in business.

VARIED PROGRAMS IN THE AREA

The following types of programs in the clerical area have been developed to meet the needs of students:

1. A program for the student who wishes to take business subjects but does not desire a concentration in shorthand, bookkeeping, or retailing. Often quoted statistics show that the number of clerical workers in business far exceeds the number of stenographic workers and bookkeepers, a sufficient justification for the average and better-than-average students to take a clerical program if such a program meets their individual desires.

2. A program for the slow learner who is not capable of developing high-level secretarial skills or understanding the abstract thinking of bookkeeping. This slow learner may find it possible to develop useful clerical skills which will provide him an opportunity in the job market.

3. A program in the development of office skills for which time is not available in the secretarial area. Reference is made here to the opportunity to become familiar with office machines and various clerical procedures.

4. A program for training in the operation of the key-punch machine. The clerical office practice course is the most appropriate place for developing a unit in data processing in which emphasis is placed on the training of key-punch operators, along with the development of some basic data processing concepts.

5. A program which provides an opportunity for the application of knowledges and the development of proper attitudes under conditions which simulate the office environment. The content of the culminating clerical office practice course provides the medium where students may apply knowledges learned in other courses while developing an appreciation of the importance of right attitudes toward work and of the necessity for good relationships with superiors and peers in the office.

A REVIEW OF THE PROGRAM

When the word "clerical" is used, thoughts turn toward the culminating course in the program, clerical office practice. While this is the one course devoted exclusively to clerical training, a series of basic courses leading to this final course comprises the total program. In the development of the clerical program, the following sequence of courses has become fairly well established:

Ninth Grade—General Business

Tenth Grade—Typewriting I, Business Arithmetic

Eleventh Grade—Typewriting II, Bookkeeping or Recordkeeping

Twelfth Grade—Clerical Office Practice, Office Machines.

As would be expected there are variations and options in courses offered and in grade placement. A course in business arithmetic may or may not be offered in the ninth or tenth grade. Office machines may be a separate course or may be integrated with the clerical office practice course. Two years of typewriting may be reduced to one. In some schools recordkeeping may be substituted for bookkeeping for low-ability students. In some of the large school systems, the clerical course may cover a two-year period.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE CLERICAL PROGRAM

The first evidence of a felt need for a clerical program occurred in the late 1920's and early 1930's. A review of professional publications in the field of business education reveals that articles about clerical training and textbooks were first published in the early 1930's.

A column, "Machines, Equipment and Supplies," edited by Peter L. Agnew, first appeared in the *Journal of Business Education* in January 1932. Agnew stated:

> There seems to be a very definite tendency at present toward placing office practice in the business curriculum of the modern high school. . . . While office practice of a sort has been included in many curricula for years under varying names, the beginning of what might be termed the modern era in office practice is really creditable to Professor F. G. Nichols who, among other points in the *New Conception of Office Practice* (Harvard University Bulletin No. 12), brought out the very definite need for giving students training in the use of modern office equipment. (1:8)

Subsequent issues of the *Journal* for two years carried outlines of courses in clerical office practice offered in high schools and colleges, along with descriptions of equipment which should be used.

Nichols stated in 1934 in his "Comment and Challenge" column:

> Surveys show a strong trend toward the use of mechanical devices. Should clerical work be one of the four majors in the high school curriculum, on a par with shorthand, bookkeeping, and retail salesmanship? We must decide. (14:7)

The *Business Education Forum,* issued for the first time in 1947, carried its first issue featuring "general clerical" in February 1948. Helen B. Borland, editor of the issue stated:

> Clerical work offers an excellent opportunity for initial business employment to the high school graduate, and in many cases to the college graduate. This aspect is of importance to business teachers. Clerical training is possible in the smallest, most meagerly equipped high school and is valuable in the program of the largest high school with the most varied offerings. Office "know-how" is not out of place in the equipment of the college graduate entering the business field. (3:7)

In the tenth special issue of the *Forum,* featuring "office clerical," for February 1957, F. Wayne House, stated:

> An effort has been made in this issue to point out the contribution that can be made in a clerical training program by some of the business courses that are often offered in the high school. It should be noted that shorthand and secretarial practice courses have intentionally not been discussed since their contribution is primarily in the area of stenographic training.
>
> Most of us would agree that a course in typewriting followed by a course in clerical practice, or office practice, is hardly sufficient to train effectively clerical workers. Instruction in bookkeeping, office machines, general business, and business arithmetic is also highly important if we are to recommend our high school graduates as well prepared clerical workers.
>
> It has been found that there are more opportunities for high school graduates for initial employment in clerical work than in any other area of business. Clerical work in business today commands a salary comparable to any other area of initial employment. The clerical worker holds an important as well as a responsible position in the office. (11:6)

These comments by House indicated that over a period of ten years the clerical program had become an established part of business education. Thirteen years later, Theodore Yerian, editor of the general clerical issue of the *Forum* for February 1960, indicated that the clerical program was a growing and progressive one. Yerian stated:

> It is doubtful, of course, that the clerical program can or will remain static. It is shouldered with the responsibility of keeping available a constant supply of workers to take care of an expanding economy demanding more and more in the way of supplementary data. True, the data may be processed in new and different ways. But there will be an increasing need, no doubt, for those who will collect, sort, classify, assemble, and place on tape the initial information which will be distributed through many channels in the form of specialized data.

> Then, the clerical practice student needs more than just the knowledge of specific skills that may be reduced to routinism. He needs to be alerted to the ever-changing business scene around him so that he finds it easier to adjust and maintain a progressive attitude. The better minds (and business must have them too) need to be challenged and shown how scientific greatness in our country depends upon American Business. (19:5)

In the general clerical issue of the *Forum* in 1962, the editor, Franklin W. Lanham, entitled his editorial "Electronics and the General Clerical Program." He presented this new area as a challenge to the clerical program, stating:

> Changes in general clerical practice in schools are inextricably intertwined with a changing electronic technology. The challenge? Business educators must adjust their programs to the demands of an electronic world or get out of the business of general clerical preparation. To date, business teachers have reacted to the challenge in three ways:
>
> 1. It can't happen to us. . . . .
> 2. We must orient our students to electronics. . . . .
> 3. Our students must learn to adjust to an ever-changing business system. (13:4b)

Lanham's statement, "The clerical worker of tomorrow must be able to solve problems, to think, to compute, to arrive at wise decisions, and to communicate thought," opens up a new vista for clerical training. (13:4b)

The yearbooks of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, the National Commercial Teachers Federation, and the *American Business Education Yearbook* all carried chapters in the early 1940's which indicated that clerical training was recognized as an area distinct from that of secretarial and bookkeeping. Frisch in the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association Yearbook for 1941 stated:

> Clerical practice is primarily a laboratory course in which the student has the opportunity to coordinate all of his knowledge and skills, personal traits, and character . . . . For a decade, schools have offered the subject of office practice . . . . There are about two and a half million clerical workers in the United States, a total greatly exceeding the number of employees engaged in both bookkeeping and stenographic work. It is difficult to determine the duties and skills of these two and a half million people. These duties vary in type and number to such a degree that it is impossible for the schools to train as specifically for clerical as for stenographic or bookkeeping work. (7:184)

Walters, in Monograph 76, *The Business Curriculum*, published in 1942, recognized general clerical as a distinct sequence, the others being bookkeeping, stenography, and selling. (17:27)

In Monograph 75, *Major Issues in Business Education*, published in 1951, the major issues for office and clerical practice included consideration of (a) the extent and type of machine instruction, (b) the content of the office practice course, (c) the need for the establishment of separate office practice courses for stenographic, bookkeeping and clerical students, (d) the need for the development of a separate clerical training program, and (e) if such a program should be developed, should it serve the "slow-learning" group, the "better" students, or both. (9:66-80)

In the next *Major Issues in Business Education*, Monograph 106, published eleven years later, the issues discussed revealed the progress of the clerical program. The first issue questioned whether the course should be required of *all* students which would indicate the recognition of the course as a permanent part of the curriculum. After other alternatives were suggested, such as requiring the course of *all business* students, the question was asked: "Should the course be dropped?" The question of whether office machines should be a part of the course was still an issue as was the question of whether office practice should be integrated with other courses. Added issues involved the effect of automation on the course and the length of the course. (8:45-62) These issues indicated that while the course was firmly established, there were still questions concerning its organization and content.

The publication in 1959 of the American Business Education Yearbook, *The Clerical Program in Business Education*, is alone evidence of the vital part which business educators believed that the clerical program played in the total program of business education. The introduction recognized "that there are two basic kinds of secondary school education for office employment—clerical and stenographic." (12) In chapter one the clerical program was "initially defined as education for office activities other than stenography." (12:7) The parts of the yearbook outlining the purpose, the subject matter, teaching methods, and coordination of the program revealed the unique function of the clerical program. A reading of this yearbook is evidence of the growth of the subject from its inception about 1930 to 1959.

Enrollment in office practice classes, as shown in the following table, indicates the tremendous growth of the subject from 1928 to 1961. (18: Table 7)

Year	Number of Pupils Enrolled in Office Practice in Public Secondary Schools	Percent of Increase	
1928	44,364		
1934	80,104	80	(Not Part of Table 7)
1949	108,201	35	
1961	189,935	75	

While this historical review is by no means complete, it does present evidences to show that the clerical curriculum is one of the four areas of business education and that it consists of a series of courses, generally culminated by a course in clerical office practice.

AIMS OF THE CLERICAL PROGRAM

The aims of the clerical program may be considered from the broad view of the total clerical curriculum and also more specifically for the culminating course in clerical office practice. The broad aims of the total clerical curriculum can be summarized as the development of knowledge and skills in the clerical area to meet the needs of business today. Such a broad definition includes knowledge gained in such courses as general business and business arithmetic, and also the more specific skills acquired in bookkeeping and the course in clerical office practice. The 1959 Yearbook, *The Clerical Program in Business Education*, defined the aims of the clerical program as "(a) sharpening the fundamental skills, (b) learning systems, procedures, and methods as applied to the office, and (c) learning specialized skills and acquiring technical office knowledges." (12:14)

Specifically, the aim of the culminating clerical practice course is to prepare the student for entry into the office where he will perform one or more of a wide variety of clerical jobs. Because of this variety in clerical work, schools are not in a position to give specific job training. Instead, the aim has become generally accepted that the clerical course should develop a diversity of skills which might be applied to many jobs; not only should the course give background knowledge but it should also indicate the importance of the application of this background information to whatever task may be performed; and perhaps more important, the course should make the student aware of the importance of the right attitude toward the job, and the desirability of good personal qualifications.

Few courses in the business department of high schools are required to cover such diversified areas of knowledge and skill development as clerical office practice. Not only must the clerical student gain knowledge and skills which may be applied to many jobs, but he must have training in personal growth to help him understand the importance of the right attitude toward the job. While the aim of the course is primarily vocational in nature, there are benefits to be gained for personal use. When emphasis is placed upon the three areas—skill development, attainment and application of knowledge, and development of proper attitudes—the breadth of the course is evident.

Archer has developed a set of typical objectives which may be used as guides for establishing objectives for individual courses:

> The program for general office or clerical preparation should provide all of the learning experiences that the student requires to:
>
> 1. Attain effective mastery of the fundamental processes
> 2. Develop into a well-adjusted individual possessing acceptable character and personality traits
> 3. Build a background knowledge of business principles, office organization, and occupational information
> 4. Acquire a beginner's standard of competence in at least one major technical business skill such as typewriting, filing, and so on
> 5. Achieve effective command of related business office information and facilitating skills such as mailing, telephone technique, and the like, to function as an efficient, adaptable beginning office worker
> 6. Know how to look for, apply for, and select a general office job suitable to abilities and interests
> 7. Understand the need for continuous self-development and know how to plan an appropriate individual program for that purpose. (2:27)

CONTENT OF THE COURSE

The discussion of course content will be limited to the clerical office practice course and will trace the development over the past forty years, showing how the course has increasingly met the needs of clerical training.

The early clerical office practice courses were closely associated with the teaching of office machines and so the course immediately fulfilled one of its functions—to develop a familiarity with office machines. Other units frequently mentioned in the early courses were filing, mailing procedures and postal information, techniques of telephoning, reception of callers and making appointments, personality in business, and steps in securing employment. From such a listing it is evident that the early courses in clerical practice were meeting the needs of the clerical employee.

During the years, the content has changed gradually with less emphasis on the development of highly specialized skills, and with more emphasis on the acquiring of those skills of a more general nature which can be applied to many types of clerical jobs. House stated:

> Emphasis is now placed upon the knowledges and skills that are basic to all clerical jobs since it would be impractical, if not impossible, to provide specific training for each of the several hundred types of duties performed by clerical workers.
>
> The following knowledges and skills are reported to be required most frequently by clerical workers: typewriting, including the typing of forms, straight copy, envelopes, rough drafts, cards, and tabulations; use of transcribing machines; filing; operation of adding-calculating machines, posting machines, keypunch and tabulator machines; classifying, sorting, and indexing; filling in forms by hand; checking names and numbers for accuracy; duplicating and collating. (10:22-23)

The last unit to be added to the course is one in data processing or automation. With or without equipment, this unit is an essential one. When a keypunch machine is available, the unit may be taught from the laboratory approach and may include skill development, along with the development of basic concepts. Without equipment the data processing unit should still be included. An automation practice set may be used. The course in clerical office practice is the logical place for students to develop an understanding of the punchcard and some basic concepts about automated data processing. Some practical experience in operating the keypunch machine is highly desirable, although a high degree of skill is not usually required for initial employment as a keypunch operator. Business is glad to secure keypunch operators with some basic knowledge of automated data processing and the operation of the keypunch machine.

A review of content changes indicates that course content has kept abreast of the changing needs of clerical work.

METHODS OF TEACHING

Since the inception of the clerical office practice course, the literature has contained descriptions of three traditional methods of instruction: battery, rotation, and integrated office practice plans. To present effectively the various units in the course, a variety of methods should be used. For some units the course should be taught by the lecture-textbook method, other units by class discussion, and for machine units by the battery or rotation plan. The selection of the appropriate method for the unit being taught is an important factor in the success of the instruction. Examples of the teaching method for various units are:

Battery Plan	Rotation Plan	Lecture-Discussion
Filing	Office Machines	Business Information
Duplicating	Keypunch	Office Organization
Typewriting		Orientation to Job
Mailing		Human Relations

Teachers can be guided in their selection of method by the equipment and time available; however, the effective clerical course is not taught by one method, such as the rotation plan, but by a combination of methods. The 1959 American Business Education Yearbook contains a helpful section on "How to Teach Courses in the Clerical Program."

TEXTBOOKS, MATERIALS, AND EQUIPMENT

Excellent textbooks are available for the clerical office practice class. Over the years, textbooks have become better organized for teaching, and content has been revised in keeping with changes in office procedures. Selection of textbooks in clerical office practice may be made from those of several publishing companies.

One of the first office practice books, published in 1933, stated in the preface that it was developed to provide an integrated course as a new trend in education. The course was set up as an integrated laboratory course to conduct a business with twenty-nine different positions. The authors claimed that the course brought to the classroom the actual conditions of work as they existed in the business office. (16)

In 1949 a second clerical textbook was published by the same company which stated that its purpose was to train those persons seeking employment in jobs other than stenographic, bookkeeping, or other specialized types of office jobs. The book stressed personality and personal efficiency along with the strengthening of knowledges and skills basic to all clerical jobs, including filing, mail clerk responsibilities, commonly used business forms, fundamentals of arithmetic, and editing and checking of information. (6) When the book was revised in 1959, units added included getting a job, duplicating and transcribing, and other office machines. (5)

The most recent textbooks contain units on office machines, offset and photocopy processes, and automation.

Textbooks have been written with adaptability to teaching in mind. Units are logically arranged and practice materials provided at the ends of the chapters. Workbooks are available as well as objective tests, teachers' manuals, and keys. These well-prepared textbooks are a great aid to the teacher in organizing effective classroom procedures.

A wealth of supplementary materials is available for the teacher's use. Films, filmstrips, yearbooks, government publications, and articles on methods in the professional periodicals all offer valuable teaching aids.

While instruction in the operation of a number of machines is desirable for the clerical office practice course, it can be taught effectively with a minimum of equipment. Is it more valuable for a student to develop a high degree of skill on a 10-key adding and listing machine than to learn the basic features to consider in selecting the right machine for the job? Is it more important for a student to learn all of the special applications of the rotary calculator than to have an understanding of its adaptability to new office procedures? Is it more important for a student to become highly skilled on the keypunch machine than to develop an understanding of some basic concepts of data processing? If the answer to these questions is "no," then it is evident that it is possible for a small school without much equipment to offer an effective clerical office practice course.

If office machines are to be included in the office practice course, the following types are recommended: adding and listing 10-key machines, adding and listing full-key machines, rotary calculators, dictating machines, transcribing-dictating machines, liquid duplicator (possibly a stencil duplicator), keypunch, electric typewriters, and filing units.

BACKGROUNDS AND OBJECTIVES OF STUDENTS

An introspective look at students through the case study approach is a good way to understand their problems and may be used to advantage by the teacher of the clerical office practice class. An article in the

National Business Education Quarterly contains a case study for each of four types of students for whom the clerical program fills a need. First there is the potential dropout who remained in school and graduated with a job awaiting him because he was guided into the clerical program. Then there is the all-too-frequent case of the girl who wants to take the secretarial course but cannot do so because she does not have ability in language skills. She can, however, make a contribution in the handling of information as a clerk. The third case is that of the boy who wants to go into business for himself and so does not need the highly specialized programs of bookkeeping or secretarial. He needs a four-semester clerical program which leads to some advanced training. Finally there is the girl who may have the ability for a secretarial program but whose interests lie in the clerical and office machines area. (4:45-48)

When consideration is given to the fact that the clerical program is meeting the needs of these four kinds of students, there can be no question but that it has and is continuing to make a real contribution to the business education area.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

The effectiveness of the clerical program is enhanced by the fact that no universal standards have been established. In typewriting, students are expected to type so many words a minute, say forty net or fifty gross; in shorthand, a student must take dictation at certain speeds, such as 80 words per minute for the first year and 120 for the second. Work in clerical office practice is not bound by any such standards. The course can thus be taught to fit the needs of the given situation, to give the students an opportunity to develop as high a degree of skill as needed, and at the same time to learn to apply knowledge and develop desirable attitudes. This flexibility makes it possible to develop the clerical program on an individual basis; the student becomes the focal point, not the course requirements.

True, there must be evaluation and grades must be given, but the teacher can establish the grading system according to the manner in which the course is developed, giving consideration not only to skill development, but to the way a student shows ability to use the knowledges which he has acquired, and with consideration given to changes in attitudes. This freedom has made it possible to develop the clerical course so that it makes a vital contribution to the business education program.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

No program and no course can be better than those who teach it; so an outstanding clerical program means outstanding teachers. Visiting clerical classes and talking to the teachers is a rewarding experience. There is always present an enthusiasm for the course, on both the part of the teacher and the students. The teacher is interested in the development of the program and in giving consideration to the needs of the individual students, and is free to try innovations. The students are having enjoyable learning experiences in carrying out the work of the various areas. For both the teacher and the students there is present a real sense of accomplishment. The rapport between students and teacher is usually high because both are able to see progress being made; to find some part of the course which is meaningful and helpful. Activities can be varied from day to day, and changed from class to class. Teachers find the class stimulating whether it must be adapted to the slow learner or to the bright student. No greater recommendation can be made for any course in the business education program than the enthusiastic endorsement of teachers and students as found in the clerical office practice class.

PRESENT STRENGTHS SUMMARIZED

To summarize the salient features of the clerical program:

1. It meets the needs of individual students.
2. It is a growing program, constantly changing to meet present-day needs.
3. The aims are adapted to three distinct areas: skill development, application of knowledge, and building of good attitudes.
4. The course is basically vocational although it contains some personal-use values.
5. Effective materials are available for instructional use.
6. The program can be effectively taught with or without the use of equipment.
7. The course provides a place for the use of various teaching methods.
8. The content is basic to office procedures.
9. Teachers are enthusiastic and students enjoy the course and realize its practical value.

REFERENCES CITED

1. Agnew, Peter L. "Machines, Equipment and Supplies." *Journal of Business Education* 7: 8-9; January 1932.
2. Archer, Fred C. "How To Select the Course Content for Clerical Practice." *National Business Education Quarterly* 28: 27-32; December 1959.
3. Borland, Helen B. "The General Clerical Editor Comments." *Business Education Forum* 2: 7; February 1948.
4. Brown, Eleanor B., and Kalik, Jerome K. "Understanding the Clerical Student—A Case Approach." *National Business Education Quarterly* 28: 45-48; December 1959.
5. Felter, Emma K. *Basic Clerical Practice.* Second edition. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1959.
6. ———, *Personal and Clerical Efficiency.* Basic course. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1949.
7. Frisch, Vern A. "Bridging the Gap Between the General Clerical Curriculum and Business by Teaching Clerical Practice." *Business Education for Tomorrow.* Fourteenth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, 1941. pp. 183-190.
8. Gratz, Jerre E. "Office Practice." *Major Issues in Business Education.* Monograph 106. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. pp. 45-62.
9. Hayden, Carlos K. "Office and Clerical Practice." *Major Issues in Business Education.* Monograph 75. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., May 1951. pp. 66-80.
10. Howe, F. Wayne. "Office Clerical: Past, Present, and Future." *Business Education Forum* (Centennial Issue) 11: 22-23; May 1957.
11. ———, "An Effective Clerical Training Program." *Business Education Forum* 11: 6; February 1957.
12. Huffman, Harry, and Stewart, Jeffrey R., Jr. "What the Clerical Program Is." *The Clerical Program in Business Education.* Sixteenth Yearbook, American Business Education Association, 1959. pp. 7-15.
13. Lanham, Frank W. "Electronics and the General Clerical Program." *Business Education Forum* 16: 4b; February 1962.
14. Nichols, Frederick G. "Criticism, Comment and Challenge." *Journal of Business Education,* 9: 7, 20-22; May 1934.
15. Nolan, C. A., and Hayden, Carlos K. "The Development and Present Status of Business Education." *Principles and Problems of Business Education.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1958. pp. 128-32.
16. Scholl, Rose; Stern, Albert; and McNamana, Edward J. *Office Practice—An Integrated Project.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1933.
17. Walters, R. G. *The Business Curriculum.* Monograph 76. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1951. p. 27.
18. Wright, Grace S. *Subject Offerings and Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools.* U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.
19. Yerian, Theodore. "Clerical Practice Faces a Challenge." *Business Education Forum* 14: 5; February 1960.

Chapter 9

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

IRENE PLACE, Portland State College, Portland, Oregon

In this chapter, we consider some of the problems—past and present—of educating people for office clerical work. In order to do this with rapport, we must ruminate a little first about what office clerical work is, thus starting, from a common base of understanding, this discussion of vocational education for clerical workers. The dictionary states that a clerk is an office worker who keeps accounts and records, does filing and copying, *etc.* In the modern language of technology, clerical work is described as information handling and a clerical worker is anyone who handles or moves data from one processing stage to another—for example, from shorthand notes to the transcript, from an order form to shipping and invoicing forms, or from punched cards to magnetic tape and report-type print outs. Some of the movement of data or information is manual and some of it is by machine.

In business practice, the term *clerical work* is used in a generic way. It is used to refer to a variety of office jobs which includes the receptionist, stenographer, typist, bookkeeper, or office machine operator. Or it may be used to refer to a type of information-handling activity which does not involve making vital, company-affecting decisions on the basis of the information handled and which is performed by anyone who works with or uses office records. Activities that constitute clerical work are handling, copying, classifying, sorting, calculating, accumulating, checking or verifying, reporting, filing, and retrieving data or information.[1] For example, a chairman of a board of directors verifies the addition of a list of numbers in a report; even when they represent millions of dollars, he is doing clerical work. When a president of a firm fastens an annual financial report into a clip folder and stores it in his vital-records drawer, he is doing clerical work. When a bookkeeper balances his ledgers, he is doing clerical work. When a secretary makes a Xerox copy of a confidential report she transcribed and proofread, she is doing clerical work. When a typist prepares a statistical table of computer utilization data categorized by man-hours at different employment levels in the company's hierarchy, she is doing clerical work. When a mailroom clerk checks overweight, first-class items, he is doing clerical work. When a computer operator inserts a reel of magnetic tape and presses control switches that cause the equipment to calculate and print out dividend checks for the company's stockholders, he is doing clerical work; so is the computer! One way to look at it is that in an office there are in reality only two types of work or roles to play: (1) managerial (the vital decision-making, leadership role) and (2) clerical (the implementation role). This classification is reminiscent of the two roles: leaders and followers or Indians and chiefs. Most white collar jobs contain both types of work but, of course, there are clerical work specialists just as there are management specialists.

In business then, clerical work is a total company support function and the title *clerk* covers a variety of data processing and information handling activities with the variety being indicated in the titles by adjoined words, for example: payroll clerk, clerk-typist, clerk-stenographer, clerical-administrator, cash-processing clerk, cash-accounting clerk, budget-record clerk, ticket clerk, supply clerk, mail clerk, file clerk, correspondence clerk, clerk-dictating machine transcriber, personnel clerk, operations clerk, production clerk, expense clerk, price clerk, inventory clerk, general supply clerk, stock control clerk, storekeeping clerk, order clerk, gathering clerk, shipping clerk, receiving clerk, entry clerk, time clerk, auditing clerk, statistical coding clerk, and data processing clerk.

---

[1] In this chapter, a distinction is made between *data* and *information*. Information results from manipulating (processing) items of data. Data is the raw material from which information is generated. The process of *making* information out of data can be either manual or mechanical.

OLD WEAKNESSES

We observe then that the nature of clerical work is clearly delineated by dictionary definition and by job titles. We further observe that in application the type of work performed by officer clerical workers is recognized as any support activity involving the movement and transformation of data and information either manually or by machine from one record to another, from one machine to another, or from one stage of processing to another stage of processing.

In business education, on the other hand, there is a tendency to make still a different distinction about what clerical work is and to identify *clerical* training as something separate from stenographic and bookkeeping training programs. For example, the 1959 American Business Education Yearbook states in the first paragraph of chapter one, "What the Clerical Program Is":

> "The clerical program . . . has been identified with that which is left over from the usual programs of stenography, bookkeeping, and selling. . . . At a meeting of the consultants and editors for the preparation of the 1959 American Business Education Yearbook . . . it was agreed that the definition be stated thus. *The clerical program shall be initially defined as education for office activities other than stenography.*" [2]

One secondary school teacher told the writer, "In our school, we put those who have trouble with bookkeeping into the general clerical training program." Surely one of the problems in clerical education stems then from the failure of business educators to look upon clerical work the same way business looks at it; from considering it as a group of separate office activities rather than as a common body of skills or as a generic identification which is almost synonymous with the very term office work. One of the things that has contributed to this separation of clerical training from stenographic and bookkeeping training may be the range or diversification of office activities which is suggested by such a variety of job titles as those listed above, all of which were taken from business and government literature. Although all the titles include the word *clerk,* they infer a heterogeneous mix of skills and knowledges that overlap all office job classifications. They also represent different levels of office activities and responsibilities, the total of which it is impossible to cover in secondary school clerical training courses.

---

[2] The Eastern Business Teachers Association and the National Business Teachers Association. *The Clerical Program in Business Education.* Somerville, New Jersey: Somerset Press, 1959. p. 7.

A weakness in clerical training programs stems from the effort somehow to separate clerical training from stenographic and bookkeeping training, a process which can be compared to separating the warp from the woof in weaving a fabric. This arbitrary separation of inter-related office work elements causes semantic problems and has contributed to confused concepts about clerical course construction. "What is clerical training really?" is a question that nags at many an office educator's mind. To separate it out of stenographic and bookkeeping programs unfortunately also implies that clerical work is inferior to stenography and bookkeeping. After all, who wants to be an office clerk? For that matter, who wants to teach office clerks as such? Let us be realistic. Have not these thoughts lurked in the background of our struggle these past three decades to build clerical training into the business curricula? Have we not been reluctant to face the fact that the type of vocational business education we represent in secondary schools is in reality *all* clerical training as distinct from the level and type of business education which is today dispensed in collegiate and graduate schools of business administration where the management stratum of business is trained. To some extent, we are back to the age-old problem of status when choosing up sides. Everyone would like to be "chief."

The semantic smoke screen thrown up around the business education ingredient known as "clerical training" has included such verbalizations as these: Clerical training includes everything that subject matter courses in shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping do not contain. Clerical training bridges the gap between school and office employment. Clerical training prepares students for general office work. Clerical training includes general, terminal business education subject matter. The clerical office practices course is a desirable capstone course because it includes units of work that are some of the duties performed by clerical workers in business data processing. Not very helpful, these definitions, when one is trying to develop a vocational education program for clerical workers.

GENERAL CLERICAL

An examination of clerical practices textbooks and workbooks shows topics and study units such as the following: arithmetic; business information; grammar, punctuation, and capitalization; job sources, applications, interviews; office machines (adding-calculating, type only copy for duplicating machines); proverb comprehension, reading comprehension; reference materials; vocabulary and spelling; filing and recordkeeping; miscellaneous (stapler, paper cutter, numbering machine, dating machine, one- and two-hole punch, rubber stamp).[3]

Usually the contents of textbooks in occupational areas pretty well identify the special skills, techniques, and knowledges that uniquely characterize jobs within the areas, but the topics given in clerical training workbooks do not do this or to the extent that they do, the clerical training is redundant. For example, what is uniquely characteristic jobwise about the topic grammar, punctuation, and capitalization? Every literate human being studies the communication structural elements at some time or other; likewise for arithmetic, proverb comprehension, and reference materials. These topics look like the traditional three Rs (Reading, Riting, and Rithmetic) of any public school system. What is left then in the contents of clerical training books (and courses) which characterizes office "clerical" work? Filing? Isn't filing taught also in secretarial practices courses? Recordkeeping? Isn't recordkeeping taught in bookkeeping and secretarial courses? Business information? Office machines? Should we conclude that office clerical practices is primarily machines work? Or, should we conclude that business *information* is the element which uniquely characterizes clerical training? Perhaps, but observe the nature and quality of a sampling of questions used in "business information" sections of clerical workbooks:

1. What is a proper salutation for a business letter?
2. What do you say when you answer a business telephone?
3. What is the correct form for the date on a business letter?
4. What are the closing items on the second page of a business letter?
5. What is the alphabetical filing rule for handling compound company names?
6. How do we determine word count in telegrams?
7. What is a special-handling stamp?

---

[3] This is not an exhaustive list.

This is business information all right, but is it not rather trivial and has it not already been covered in typewriting, transcription, secretarial practices, and business writing courses? Further, are there not important areas of business information that might be useful to a clerical worker which are not even touched upon in clerical textbooks and workbooks? Often the course content is irrelevant. For example, consider the relevance to clerical work of such spelling drill words as nadir, allegation, commodious, defalcation, exigent, surfeit, tare, obsequious, and predilection. All of these words were in recently published clerical practices workbooks.

One can only conclude that many of the topics taught in clerical courses are already taught elsewhere not only in business education courses but in general elementary and secondary courses such as English, arithmetic, reading, and writing. One can further conclude that at least some of the content is weak and relatively impractical. Much of what is taught is probably ineffective because clerical courses concentrate on details of tasks. They do not equip students with tools of analysis and the healthy critical attitude which truly participating employees should have about their work. Too much clerical training has been of the cookbook, how-to-do variety. The analytical approach has been virtually nonexistent.

SUMMARY

These then are some of the weaknesses associated with yesterday's efforts at vocational education for clerical workers. They are fundamentally weaknesses in emphasis, content identification, and in articulation with business reality. They can be summarized or keynoted as the failure in business education to clarify in course content the unique nature of clerical work and to make the interpretation compatible with the real thing. Part of the reason the unique nature cannot be clarified in course content is because it hasn't been identified. Clerical training course content has been weak, repetitious, and full of busy work and trivia. Its contribution to the total of office training and its place within the total business education function has not been clearly established. As a result, clerical courses have become, in most schools, dumping grounds for low achievers. Too often the status of clerical courses in relation to the total school curriculum is almost nil, and too often the content is heavily infiltrated with head-shrinking busy work. Teaching emphasis is on details of how to perform tasks rather than on tools of analysis.

NEW WEAKNESSES

The above summarizes yesterday's clerical training weaknesses. What about today's? Today we read that clerical work is changing at the same time that the number employed as office clerks continues to increase.[4] We see that computers are generating new clerical jobs. Observing the steady increase in numbers of clerical workers year after year, one news commentator asked, "Are we becoming a nation of clerks?"

Current literature says that the clerical field is in a period of the most significant change since the invention of the first office machine.

> . . . in part a change in clerical work, brought about by automation and other technological trends. It is also a change in the qualifications and characteristics of the people who hold clerical jobs. Interwoven with these developments is the rapid expansion in clerical employment that has gone on for 60 years and more.
>
> Clerical workers today are the largest of the white-collar groups. In 1900 they were the smallest. . . . In 1963 about one out of every seven workers in the United States, or some 10 million people, held clerical jobs.* Over 7 million of them were women . . .**
>
> No less striking than the growth in the number of clerical workers . . . are the advances made in the way clerical tasks are accomplished. Automation and other technological developments have provided a wide range of innovations to aid in calculating, recording, tabulating, and performing many other tasks done by hand in 1900.
>
> What is the outlook now for clerical employment? It can be summed up briefly as *continued change all along the line*—in equipment, duties, requirements, training, and personnel—and continued expansion.
>
> Not every office worker nor every office will be affected by automation. Broad though the changes are, there are many offices, particularly smaller ones, where clerical duties and procedures will remain untouched.[5]

---

[4] Percent of total labor in 1950, 12.3 percent; 1960, 14.7; 1965, 15.4. *Population Statistical Abstract.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966.

* Clerical employment may reach 14 million in 1975, or about 14 clerical workers for every 10 employed in 1963. Each year during the remainder of the 1960's several hundred thousand openings are expected to occur.

** One-half of the women clerical workers in 1960 were over 36 years of age. Over 1.8 million women in clerical jobs were 45 years of age and over in 1960.

[5] Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. *Clerical Occupations for Women Today and Tomorrow.* Bulletin No. 289. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964, p. 41.

In summary then, new weaknesses in clerical training are in developing a:

1. New clerical worker image that goes beyond the traditional concept and which recognizes new "profession" overtones which now characterize top levels of computer-oriented and information-flow aspects of clerical work.
2. New subject-matter mix that retains the best of the old and adds the needed new, thus educating for the full range of clerical opportunities.

We must not make the mistake of moving to the extreme of the new spectrum of clerical opportunity at the expense of the old. Although most clerical occupations are affected by computerized data movement, some are affected more than others and some will remain untouched. Yet, if the pendulum must swing farther to one side than the other, let it swing closest to the extreme of the new spectrum because, regardless of whether or not a clerk is employed in an office that uses electronic data processing equipment, she may be a better worker because of having been through a program that has prepared her to work in such an office. For example, the greatest value to employees in working with flow diagrams and in writing simple computer programs may be that they are forced to think through problems in a logical sequence and to express themselves clearly and concisely.

3. New group of clerical teachers who understand the educational implications of the emerging clerical function identified generally as information technology.

NEW CONCEPTS NEEDED

Among the important new problems of developing vocational education for clerical workers is that of retooling or re-educating the present classroom teacher. How can present teachers of clerical practices divest themselves of yesterday's clerical image and of old clerical course content with which they have become comfortably familiar? It is possible that the present teacher cannot be re-educated; it is possible that we will have to skip a generation of clerical teachers before we can really change clerical training course content. It will take time, for example, for teacher trainers and business educators as a whole to recognize that clerical work —formerly the black sheep of office training programs—has become a "favored son" in a new era of information-handling techniques and ideas. A new type of clerical worker, riding the shirttails of computer development, is being associated with *information technology*. He has acquired a new status and has, in fact, helped to put the traditional office function into new perspective within the total organizaion. He will play a relatively important role in helping to implement the emerging information-utility philosophy which says that information is a vital business resource, the value of which can be enhanced according to the quality of the types of systems designed for processing and distilling it from raw input data.

The clerical worker is on the threshold of a new dimension of office work. In his new role, he can become an information-producing journeyman, working directly with the operation of the computer or with the handling of expanded reporting and print-out systems that result from computer applications. As he gains experience in handling data input media for tape or card integrated machines or for the computer, he is on the way to becoming an information technician and eventually can become a staff information specialist. In the past, about the only thing a clerk could aspire to become was a senior clerk or a line supervisor. In the present emerging concept of information utility, he can look forward to a career in an information-technology profession.

For those who understand the implications of the above, the next problem in extending the horizons of clerical training is to figure out what curriculum changes need to be made. What should be retained of the old and what should be added? What can the secondary schools and community colleges teach that will prepare clerical workers for the full scope of career opportunities opening up to them through information technology? What specific skills and knowledges should be taught? Should alphabetical filing with practice sets of miniature letters be retained? What new words should be added to vocabulary building exercises? Should grammar and punctuation drills be retained in clerical courses or, since this content is taught elsewhere, should it be deleted to make way for new subject matter relating to electronic data processing equipment, integrated data processing procedures, procedure diagraming, systems analysis, problem identification and decision making, work simplification, forms design, and clarification of new concepts of information utility?

The heart of a new concept about business information is that information is a vital commodity (a primary economic resource) the value of which can be enhanced through simplified, analyzed, carefully designed, logically structured, and computer manipulated systems. This is a powerful concept and has far-reaching effects, one of which we already see as the creation of a whole new breed of information-processing technicians and a whole new body of office information-processing techniques.

Information is a product. It is derived from items (single facts) of data. To create information, data may be processed manually, mechanically, or electronically. Processing data involves handling, copying, classifying, sorting, calculating, accumulating, checking or verifying, reporting, filing, and retrieving individual data items. Data can be processed for a special, short-range purpose such as an accounts payable report or it can be integrated into a total company-wide information system and retained in a central computerized data bank until needed. When needed, it can, by means of computer programs, be mixed (blended or integrated) with data from other input sources of the company and withdrawn on demand in a variety of sequences as needed by decision makers in the company.

Yesterday's clerical workers were record *keepers.* They merely maintained (sorted, filed, and dusted) visual copies of anything which was handed to them. They asked no questions about content or utility. They did not think about the use to which the information they handled was put because they were trained to follow instructions and leave the thinking to others. Therefore, they did not think about the on-going, forward-moving process of converting data bits into information. They did not think about the interrelationships, overlaps, and duplications among records they handled for different departments of the firm. For that matter, no one did. These new points of view are by-products of computer technology. It is around these new points of view that we must develop a new program of vocational education for clerical workers.

Tomorrow's information technician will not be primarily a record keeper. He will be concerned as well with the content of the records and will try to improve the utility of records that are being kept. He will be an economic resource optimizer. He will care about what he processes, about how it is used, and about how it contributes to the gross national product. He will examine (analyze) the efficiency of systems and procedures used to input data from a widely scattered variety of sources. He will work with networks of mechanized data input and output devices. He will still be performing the "clerical work" of the company and will still need personal communication and public relations skills as well as technical skills; he will still be handling and moving records—but in a new environment and with new tools. He needs to learn about these new tools at the same time that he develops an understanding of the emerging, underlying concept of information economics. To help him get this in-depth comprehension, he needs to work with models of data processing network systems which involve problems of data input, data mix, and output. He needs to learn to think of data and information as moving, flowing forces or ingredients within a group of people working together and of the mechanics of processing this ingredient. He needs to understand the mechanics of moving data from branch offices or from different departments of a company in and out of a central data bank; to visualize how data is sorted and resorted, sifted, rearranged, and merged into reports of various types as it flows toward and through a computer. The following illustrates the type of data-handling environment for which he must be trained:

> By 1969, the company (Met Life) expects to be automatically processing 95 percent of all life, personal, health, and account insurance information on virtually a 24-hour basis—for three quarters of its 44 million policyholders.
>
> Met Life's 800 district offices are being equipped with desk-size communications consoles consisting of . . . optical code reader, a control and adapter unit, a . . . teleprinter (with page printer, keyboard, paper tape reader and punch), a . . . high speed paper tape reader. . . . offices in the Boston area have been phased into the system and new offices are being added at the rate of three a week.
>
> Met Life agents use forms that can be read by the optical scanning equipment to collect data on new accounts. The scanner automatically converts this data to punched tape and, simultaneously, produces a printed copy for the district offices. The punched tape is automatically loaded into the high speed paper tape reader and the data is transmitted on command . . .
>
> The trend toward use of computers in communication systems is on a steep upward climb . . . more than half of the 70,000 computers expected to be in operation in 1977 will be communication systems. . . .[6]

NEW COURSE CONTENT

In building new clerical education programs, business teachers should themselves use the total-system approach. That is, they should look at office clerical trainees not only as machine operators in office data processing positions but also as human beings who will probably need to be long-time participating members [7] in the computer-dominated business environment of tomorrow. Even small offices will be buying computer services as described in the following quotation:

---

[6] Menkhaus, Edward J. "The Ways and Means of Moving Data." *Business Automation,* March 1967. p. 34.

> The Bank of California ". . . provides a service for some 250 doctors throughout California that involves the automatic transmission of data from the doctors offices to one of the two data centers. . . . To send charge and payment information, a nurse uses a Data-Phone data set to dial the appropriate data center number, inserts a pre-punched card—containing patient identity information—then manually keys in data concerning the type of service provided and the amount charged. At the data center, punched cards are automatically generated and fed into the computer system which produces transaction journals, aged trial balances and patient statements."[8]

Topics taught should consider the range between clerical work in the small office and clerical work in automated offices with total-system, highly automated information networks. The following is a list of topics which should be added to clerical training programs in secondary schools and community colleges because these educational levels will continue to supply the majority of clerical workers.

1. Clerical costs, cost centers, and cost factors; for example, the cost of an average business letter, the cost of processing a personnel form, or the cost of stencil duplicating 100 copies of a memo.
2. Business teamwork; how to be a productive member of a business team.
3. The functions of integrated data processing (IDP), automated data processing (ADP), electronic data processing (EDP), and electrical accounting machines (EAM) in the total of information technology.
4. Forms design and the process of improving forms so that they are compatible with data processing procedures and equipment used.
5. General business information about the role and hierarchy of managers; project planning; work processing controls; principles of organization; principles of work simplification; motion economy applied to office layout; and office layout planned so that it is compatible with the movement of information.

---

[7] ". . . today's schoolgirls may spend 25 years or more in work outside the home." *Womanpower*, A statement by the National Manpower Council. New York: Columbia University Press, 1957, p. 10.

[8] Menkhaus, *op. cit.*, p. 34.

6. Information economics and technology; optimizing information utility.
7. Information production and clerical responsibility therein.
8. Information systems and procedures analysis and design; the hierarchy of systems analysts; information networks.
9. Office layout, office environment, and office work station *planning*.
10. Office productivity and how such things as arrangement, lighting, color, and general atmosphere affect it; how to measure office production.
11. Office role or function in an entire organization; the function of office or administrative services *management*.
12. Office work simplification.
13. Procedures writing and procedures manuals.
14. Responsibility and accountability in relation to delegation of work; the chain of command where people work together in teams.
15. Work habits and office applications of the principles of motion economy.

Since so much of the material involves concepts and office training teachers are more at home with how-to-do teaching techniques, more use must be made in clerical training of genuine problem-solving situations, office data processing cases, data flow diagraming and charting, and of drawing various types of schematic models using, for example, desks and machine cutouts to depict workstations, cost centers, and decision points in the office information production line. Student participation is essential in developing the new concepts associated with information technology. Students must analyze and design machine forms, draw flow diagrams of procedures showing the handling of typical forms, and look for alternate procedures for handling prescribed routines—even such simple ones as routines for reporting grades, taking attendance, returning papers, or selling tickets for a school play. Students must be given the opportunity to become aware that they have a stake in the affairs of the companies in which they work (or the school they are attending or any group in which they are participating) and that each personally has something to contribute to the total. They must be helped to understand that from their own creativeness, they can add something to the total effort of the group. They must learn that every human being has a chance in his lifetime, no matter what his station in life may be, somehow to contribute to the total of civilization. They should learn that the most successful clerical employees are not those who lockstep unthinkingly, adhering without question to job routines.

It may take a decade to infiltrate this type of teaching into office practice courses, but it must come. Students must be given opportunities to *think* within the classroom framework no matter what the subject matter is and to think in terms of the total "system" of employment and their contribution to it. They should be prepared for job enlargement. They should be encouraged to think like managers. We have tended in office education to create a separation between the thinkers and the doers.

To provide a classroom environment that makes the most of "thinking" situations requires courage, intelligence, innovation, new types of methods courses at the teacher education centers, new projects, and new textbooks. It will involve new types of practice teaching situations, the identification of new objectives, and the use of new teaching-learning emphases. On the whole, however, the change-over is not as complex as the terminology may lead the reader to expect. Such things as schematic models, flow charts, and diagrams may give some teachers the idea that electronic equipment or sophisticated teaching aids are required. Not at all. Much can be accomplished to develop concept-oriented course content merely by taking a new point of view and innovating with already available teaching materials.

For example, take something as traditional as a copy-typing tabulation exercise. Traditionally students have been taught to copy typewriting exercises exactly as they appear in the text. Adopt the point of view, however, that the model in the text is merely one possible arrangement of the items of data that it contains and that each student should create at least one alternate arrangement. Use as a guideline the concept that "There is usually a better way," and help students develop not only different but *better* models of the same data. Help them to consider how different models are influenced by the type and job level of the person who will ultimately use the tabulated "report." Help students realize what they, as office clerical workers, can contribute toward improving the finished tabular array so that it is more useful. They contribute the rationale; that is, they use their intellects and their special knowledge of typewriting layout in examining the purpose of the tabulation. They consider item sequencing and focal points such as the title and columnar headings. They can help create "information" from the data by sequencing and entitling it so that it is easily understood.

When taught typewriting tabulations from such a point of view, students learn something about separating irrelevant from relevant data. Notice the following examples of a typewriting exercise which was presented to students from this point of view. They show four different models students developed from a list of 22 items about bridges. Many more models were developed, but space prohibits showing them. Each model developed was different from the textbook model.

NOTABLE MODERN BRIDGES

Span (Feet)	*Name*	*Location*	*Completed*
4,200	Golden Gate	San Francisco	1937
3,500	George Washington	New York City	1931
2,800	Tacoma Narrows	Tacoma, Washington	1950
2,310	Transbay	San Francisco	1936
2,300	Bronx-Whitestone	New York City	1939
2,150	Delaware Memorial	Wilmington, Delaware	1951
1,850	Ambassador	Detroit, Michigan	1929
1,800	Quebec	Quebec, Canada	1917
1,750	Delaware River	Philadelphia	1926
1,700	Forth	Scotland	1889
1,652	Kill an Kull	Bayonne, New Jersey	1931
1,650	Sydney Harbor	Australia	1932
1,632	Bear Mountain	Peekskill, New York	1924
1,600	Chesapeake Bay	Annapolis, Maryland	1952
1,600	Williamsburg	New York City	1903
1,595.5	Brooklyn	New York City	1883
1,550	Lions Gate	Vancouver, Canada	1939
1,500	Mid-Hudson	Poughkeepsie, New York	1930
1,500	Howrah	Calcutta, India	1943
1,470	Manhattan	New York City	1909
1,400	Transbay	Oakland, California	1936
1,380	Triborough	New York City	1936

MODEL 1

NOTABLE MODERN BRIDGES

Name	*Length*	*Location*	*Completed*
1. Ambassador	1,850	Detroit, Michigan	1929
2. Bear Mountain	1,632	Peekskill, New York	1924
3. Bronx-Whitestone	2,300	New York City	1939
4. Brooklyn	1,595.5	New York City	1883
5. Chesapeake Bay	1,600	Annapolis, Maryland	1952
6. Delaware Memorial	2,150	Wilmington, Delaware	1951
7. Delaware River	1,750	Philadelphia	1926

	Name	*Length*	*Location*	*Completed*
8.	Forth	1,700	Scotland	1889
9.	George Washington	3,500	New York City	1931
10.	Golden Gate	4,200	San Francisco	1937
11.	Howrah	1,500	Calcutta, India	1943
12.	Kill an Kull	1,652	Bayonne, New Jersey	1931
13.	Lions Gate	1,550	Vancouver, Canada	1939
14.	Manhattan	1,470	New York City	1909
15.	Mid-Hudson	1,500	Poughkeepsie, New York	1930
16.	Quebec	1,800	Quebec, Canada	1917
17.	Sydney Harbor	1,650	Australia	1932
18.	Tacoma Narrows	2,800	Tacoma, Washington	1950
19.	Transbay	2,310	San Francisco	1936
20.	Transbay	1,400	Oakland, California	1936
21.	Triborough	1,380	New York City	1936
22.	Williamsburg	1,600	New York City	1903

MODEL 2

TODAY'S GREAT BRIDGES

BY NAME

Name	*Site*	*Completion*	*Span* *
Ambassador	Detroit, Michigan	1929	1,850
Bear Mountain	Peekskill, New York	1924	1,632
Bronx-Whitestone	New York City, New York	1939	2,300
Brooklyn	New York City, New York	1883	1,595.5
Chesapeake Bay	Annapolis, Maryland	1952	1,600
Delaware Memorial	Wilmington, Delaware	1951	2,150
Delaware River	Philadelphia, Pa.	1926	1,750
Forth	Scotland	1889	1,700
George Washington	New York City, New York	1931	3,500
Golden Gate	San Francisco, Calif.	1937	4,200
Howrah	Calcutta, India	1943	1,500
Kill an Kull	Bayonne, New Jersey	1931	1,652
Lions Gate	Vancouver, Canada	1939	1,550
Manhattan	New York City, New York	1909	1,470
Mid-Hudson	Poughkeepsie, New York	1930	1,500
Quebec	Quebec, Canada	1917	1,800
Syndey Harbor	Australia	1932	1,650
Tacoma Narrow	Tacoma, Washington	1950	2,800
Transbay	Oakland, California	1936	1,400
Transbay	Tacoma, Washington	1950	2,800
Triborough	New York City, New York	1936	1,380
Williamsburg	New York City, New York	1903	1,600

MODEL 3

---

* In feet.

BRIDGES OF THE WORLD

Year Completed	*Name*	*Location*	*Span in Feet*
1883	Brooklyn	New York, N. Y.	1,595.5
1889	Forth	Scotland	1,700
1903	Williamsburg	New York, N. Y.	1,600
1909	Manhattan	New York, N. Y.	1,470
1917	Quebec	Quebec, Canada	1,800
1924	Bear Mountain	Peekskill, N. Y.	1,632
1926	Delaware River	Philadelphia, Pa.	1,750
1929	Ambassador	Detroit, Mich.	1,850
1930	Mid-Hudson	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	1,500
1931	George Washington	New York, N. Y.	3,500
1931	Kill an Kull	Bayonne, N. J.	1,652
1932	Sydney Harbor	Australia	1,650
1936	Transbay	Oakland, Calif.	1,400
1936	Transbay	San Francisco, Calif.	2,310
1936	Triborough	New York, N. Y.	1,380
1937	Golden Gate	San Francisco, Calif.	4,200
1939	Bronx-Whitestone	New York, N. Y.	2,300
1939	Lions Gate	Vancouver, Canada	1,550
1943	Howrah	Calcutta, India	1,500
1950	Tacoma Narrows	Tacoma, Wash.	2,800
1951	Delaware Memorial	Wilmington, Del.	2,150
1952	Chesapeake Bay	Annapolis, Md.	1,600

MODEL 4

The foregoing models illustrate that even in typewriting there are opportunities to teach simple data manipulation concepts. Notice how the exercise provided students with an opportunity to participate and problem solve. Each had a personal stake in the model he developed. Each was given an opportunity to think about the purpose of the data being typewritten and about how the information might be focused. Many office practice exercises can be presented from this point of view. In fact, it can be said that this in reality is the only way to *educate* thinking clerical workers. When employed as clerical specialists, those who have been educated in this way can demonstrate expertise in something other than machine manipulation, and this knowledgeableness in their field will win for them the respect of co-workers.

Another example of how a traditional office practice exercise can be taught from the new clerical training point of view is the 10-key adding machine. As students learn to manipulate the keyboard of the machine, teach them at the same time what the function of the machine is as a raw data input device, what part it plays in an integrated data processing procedure, and what guidelines to use in selecting a 10-key machine from among the several makes that are on the market. Have students draw flow diagrams of the classroom procedure in moving data from the input source (textbook) to the student work station for processing, to the teacher's desk for checking (the error-correction phase D), and back to the student for final disposition of the product. Have students diagram and think in terms of the flow of data—from input to finished product—right in the classroom. Other examples are dictation that becomes a finished transcript and a typewritten master that becomes *x* number of reproduced copies. Have students analyze classroom and school data processing "systems." Help them become acquainted with the idea of transmitting data from input sources to the main part of a network and to "picture" junction points in a network. Help them learn the names of data processing equipment manufacturers and the vocabulary associated with different types, especially with the parts that make up networks. Instead of inappropriate spelling and vocabulary words such as those listed earlier in this chapter, consider teaching such computer and information-technology oriented words as the following: [9]

1. access
2. accountability
3. arbitrary
4. authority
5. business
6. charts
7. clerk
8. code
9. console
10. converter
11. COBOL
12. control
13. cost centers
14. criteria
15. data processing
16. data bank
17. decode
18. dynamic
19. diagrams
20. economics
21. electronic
22. electrical accounting machines
23. encode
24. feedback
25. field
26. forecasting
27. *Fortran*
28. function
29. implementation
30. integrated
31. information
32. input/output
33. interface

---

[9] Check glossaries in data processing textbooks for definitions and for additional words. Two magazines that clerical training teachers will find helpful are:

(1) *The Office*. Office Publications, Inc., Box 4602 Grand Central Post Office, New York, N. Y. 10022.

(2) *Business Automation*. Business Publications, Inc., 288 Park Avenue, Elmhurst, Illinois 60126.

34. inventory
35. job description
36. magnetic
37. management
38. master file
39. maximize
40. machine language
41. methods
42. microsecond
43. microfilm & microfiche
44. office
45. offline
46. organize
47. peripheral equipment
48. philosophy
49. plan
50. program & programer
51. proliferation
52. probability
53. procedure
54. punched card
55. rationale
56. real time
57. record
58. responsibility
59. retrieval
60. schedule
61. sophisticated
62. solid state
63. staff specialists
64. standard
65. system & systems analysis
66. tape
67. team
68. technology
69. total systems
70. unit
71. work simplification

Vocabulary building of this type taken ten or so words and phrases at a time, can be used as typewriting exercises in at least three ways: rough draft, machine composition, or tabulation exercise. They and synonyms or definitions can be dictated in shorthand classes. Ten or fifteen items can be assigned to be used in sentences or in paragraphs describing various phases of the new information technology. The creative teacher will have no trouble finding teaching procedures for communicating these word meanings to clerical training students through typical how-to-do situations.

CONCLUSION

The development of the new courses in vocational education for clerical workers involves more than course content and new teaching methods; it involves changing the image and the status of clerical training within the school community and within the total curriculum of the school system. The ideal would be to erase the past record in clerical training and to start with a new slate. However, completely new starts are rarely possible in the affairs of human beings. Man remembers and past concepts and prejudices persist. The best we can do in adding new dimensions to clerical training is to recognize that clerical workers in tomorrow's business offices must know more than those who worked in precomputer days and develop the means to make the necessary changes.

Chapter 10

Projections for the Future

MARY ELLEN OLIVERIO, Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York, New York

The torrents of paper that now pass through the typical business office on a work day provide an intensive incentive to find more effective ways of handling information. Clerical workers are intimately related to this torrent of paper work; they are the ones who process and maintain these endless streams of paper. If paper should become obsolete, as some are predicting at this time, it is extremely difficult to make predictions about the nature of work that will be done in the office and how many people will be needed.

Experimentation is already under way on what may become the paperless business world. A *New York Times* article described the prospects of a banking system where a charge sale will be handled by a computer. The computer will make the accounts receivable record, pay the store, and delay customer payment. A bank in Wilmington, Delaware, has such a system on trial. A clerk in the bank is able to insert a customer's plastic card in a slot on a touch-tone card dialer telephone, push a few buttons to indicate the amount of purchases and within seconds complete a charge or cash transaction through the bank without the use of a single piece of paper.[1]

The efforts to replace documents by recording data on film or tape, so that more information can be stored in less space and can also be instantaneously retrieved, have been speeded up in recent years. The possibilities of using video media to transfer data—from sales figures to the daily newspaper—are no longer fanciful. [2]

---

[1] Smith, William D. "The Checkless Society: Human Beings Causing the Chief Delays." *New York Times*, May 21, 1967. Section 3, p. 1, 14.

While there is no assurance as to what the clerical worker will be doing in the 1980's, the short-run projections of the U. S. Department of Labor indicate that clerical workers, who constitute the second fastest-growing occupational category, will number 13 million in 1970. The growth rate projected between 1965 and 1970 is 18.2 percent.[3] The report stated further:

> The ultimate growth rate of these workers will undoubtedly be affected by the rapid technological developments in the fields of computers, office equipment and communication devices. Whether the effect of these technological improvements will in time retard clerical employment growth or whether the demand for processing the increased information becoming available through these improvements will accentuate growth in their ranks is yet to be fully determined.[4]

It would appear somewhat foolhardy to attempt at this point to specify the nature of the tasks clerical workers in the 1980's will be doing or to speculate on how many workers there will be. Yet, we in business education must ask some difficult questions: What should be the nature of the preparation provided for clerical workers? Where should the preparation take place? Who should be prepared to do clerical tasks? How relevant is *any* preparation in a rapidly changing technologically oriented office?

The foregoing questions and others implied in these will be considered in this brief chapter. The validity of the comments is indeed questionable at this time. As Clarke has stated: "It is probable that all long-range prediction, if it is to be accurate, must be of this nature (more an act of faith than of logic). The real future is not *logically* foreseeable." [5] Nonetheless, there must be speculation for to fail to speculate is to fail to critically assess what is being done in the schools to prepare students for positions.

---

[2] Recent annual office reports of *Dun's Review and Modern Industry* provide interesting analysis of the contemporary office and projections of the future. See especially the Thirteenth Annual Office Report, September 1966, which is Part II of the September issue of the publication.

[3] U. S. Department of Labor. *Manpower Report of the President* and *A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training*, 1966, p. 43.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 44, 45.

[5] Clarke, Arthur C. *Profiles of the Future, An Inquiry into the Limits of the Possible*. New York: Harper & Row, 1958. p. 15.

ASSUMPTIONS BASIC TO PLANNING FOR THE 1980's

For purposes of this discussion of the nature of vocational preparation for clerical workers for the 1980's, it is necessary to keep several assumptions in mind. One or more of these may prove utterly untenable within the next decade. We must wait for the passage of time to tell.

First, people in large numbers will still be employed in the 1980's. We will not have reached the era when the typical man of working age no longer works for a living. We will undoubtedly be far closer to the now-predicted leisure society than we are at present, but it is not likely that we will have reached it. While 40 percent of the population was gainfully employed in 1966, it is possible that by the 1980's somewhere between 30 and 35 percent will be so employed. With people still at work, students in the schools will look ahead to employment, and many will be interested in preparing for work.

Second, by the 1980's there will be far more knowledge available concerning the abilities and talents needed for particular jobs in the business office. As jobs become more closely associated with machines and integrated processes, they will come under more careful scrutiny. Americans seem somewhat more preoccupied with the full utilization of equipment than people, and when people are related to that equipment, it is more likely that what they contribute to the process will be analyzed, too. Such information will be of value to the curriculum planner and to the teachers who direct the instructional activities for job preparation. It should help make the education provided more relevant to work demands.

Third, while the number of students continuing their education beyond high school will continue to increase, there will still be a sizable group, as far as numbers are concerned, who will plan to enter the labor force after graduating from high school.

Fourth, the economic growth that the United States has sustained for the last twenty years will be continued. This does not mean that there will be a steady, straight upward movement to the growth, but the long-term line will be one of growth, not decline. This implies that there will be many innovations, the nature of which we cannot fully foresee at the present moment, that will be quickly diffused throughout the economy because they will improve the material well-being of the people. Continuing innovation will provide occupational opportunities for graduates of the formal school system.

Fifth, there will be vocational preparation in the secondary school. It is possible that the most enlightened school systems will begin vocational preparation in the middle school because of the realization that boys and girls growing up in the urban environment have had limited experience in work activities, and to be fully effective adults, such activities are extremely important. The vocational preparation will not be like that provided in the 1960's, however.

Sixth, by the 1980's the society will have realized that the most economical, as well as the most effective, way to provide vocational preparation requires a cooperation between business and the formal school seldom evident in the communities of the 1960's. The repetition of training in business will have become outmoded. No longer will high school graduates, for example, leave school in June to enter a business training program for two months in order to prepare for jobs. The preparation for particular jobs will be provided by the formal school system. What is happening in the business office that has impact on preparation for work will be fully understood and interpreted by the teachers.

AIMS OF VOCATIONAL PREPARATION IN THE 1980's

Teachers are developing more and more understanding of the long-range needs of students who prepare for work. Such understanding will be far more astute in the 1980's. By that time, sufficient experience with rapidly changing modes of work will have provided better perception of what is fundamental and of long-term value.

The concept of "preparing for an initial position" will be foreign to the teacher of the 1980's. The basic aims of preparation will be: (a) to develop a comprehensive view of the nature of the functions for which the business office is responsible, (b) to develop an understanding of the interrelatedness of the tasks performed in the business office, (c) to develop sufficient skills and knowledge of a major segment of the tasks so that performance in a position is fully satisfactory, and (d) to become fully aware of the occupational opportunities that can be pursued and of the educational requirements prerequisite for these opportunities.

The students in the secondary school who prepare for what we now call "clerical positions" will be learning how to perform in relation to a logical segment of interrelated functions in the business office. For in the 1980's a person who knows one task only (for example, how to type copy) will be as handicapped as an illiterate attempting to find his way among the superhighways that surround our large cities.

CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR THE 1980's

The designs for curriculums for vocational preparation in the 1980's will have little in common with many of the designs common in the schools of the 1960's. The school of the future will design curriculums with far more flexibility than is the case at the present time. Major difficulties with developing appropriate designs at this time are the lack of information about critical requirements for jobs, the failure to determine what abilities of workers are most significantly related to doing a job successfully, and little evidence of the depth and range of general understanding prerequisite to doing a job well. Evidence on these factors will have been secured to provide the schools with the basis for making more intelligent curricular decisions.

In the vocational clerical program, students will be able to select an area of concentration that will integrate a range of tasks that are highly related and are of varying levels of complexity. Much attention will be given to providing students with as much preparation as they can assimilate. Also, a student will be able to pursue a rate of learning that is appropriate to him. Irrespective of the level to which a student strives, all will be given experiences to develop general understanding of the occupational cluster in which they are studying.

Areas of Specialization Provided

There will be two so-called core courses for all students pursuing vocational programs for clerical occupations. These are:

American Business: Its Aims and Operations

The primary objective of this course will be to develop an understanding of American business activity. Students will have many opportunities to see what is happening in business. The relationships of business to the economic goals of the society will be developed.

This course will be offered at the 9th or 10th grade level.

The American Business Office: Its Tasks and Responsibilities

The primary objective of this course will be to develop a comprehensive view of the functions of the business office. Students will see the range of ways in which functions are performed; they will develop awareness of the categories into which tasks are organized.

This course will be offered at the 10th or 11th grade level.

Students will be able to select one of three clerical options. These will be:

CLERICAL—COMPUTATIONAL

In this cluster will be a sequence of classroom and laboratory experiences that will develop a range of understandings and skills related to the computational and financial tasks of the business office. Students will learn the theory of keeping financial records, how to operate machines, how to make decisions, and how to handle the unexpected tasks that develop.

CLERICAL—RECORDS DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT

In this cluster will be a sequence of classroom and laboratory experiences that will develop a range of skills and understandings related to the full range of records processing and management.

CLERICAL—COMMUNICATIONS

In this cluster will be a sequence of classroom and laboratory experiences that will develop a range of skills and understanding related to the communications of the business office.

Each of these options will have several levels of skills and understanding. For example, in clerical—communications, a student of somewhat limited talents may learn how to operate telephone answering services of a relatively routine nature (providing information for customers about a limited range of products, for example) while a talented student may develop the skills needed to respond to correspondence that is of an exceptional nature and cannot be handled by the computer-operated correspondence system.

While these options will be primarily vocational for those students who seek employment after high school, there will be students who are interested in industrial engineering, business management, product development, and similar fields of specialization enrolled in these programs. Each of these options will be so organized that a student may spend as little as three periods a week for one year in one, or as much as ten periods a week for two to three years.

Programs for Employed Workers

Another feature of the curriculum of the 1980's will be the short-term programs that are provided for clerical workers who need further preparation. With the close association of the business community and the school, the school will maintain a fully up-to-date laboatory of training equipment that makes possible the provision for up-dating the skills of currently employed persons. When new equipment is to be installed into a company, that equipment (or a training model) is first added to the school laboratory so that employees are prepared by the time the equipment is installed in their company.

METHODS AND MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

It is difficult to project the nature of technological aids that will be readily available for the vocational teacher in 1980. What is described here may appear somewhat fanciful when one views the severe financial limitations that many school districts face in the 1960's. Nonetheless, we can hypothesize that more dollars will be available for educational purposes in the 1980's than is the case now.

The Teacher in the Classroom

While the classroom will not be bookless, books as we use them today will be obsolete in the 1980's. While some basic textbooks that deal with principles that persist over more than the short-run will be used, much contemporary information will be evident in the classroom. Periodicals, reports from companies, reports from services that specialize in particular phases of business operations will all be available to the teacher and students. It is very likely that these materials will be on a third-generation type of tape or film—magnetic tape, and microfilm may be outdated in two decades!

By the 1980's there will have developed a group of specialists in materials preparation who will constantly assess a highly representative group of companies and their materials as a means of determining those materials that are pertinent to classroom instruction. Many of these materials will need to be modified for instructional purposes. The so-called free materials provided by business for instructional purposes today, while useful in some instances, fail in wholehearted effectiveness because seldom are they fully integrated with the objectives of courses presently offered.

To develop understanding, the teacher will not merely lecture, but will be able to provide visual visits. For example, in the course, American Business Office: Its Tasks and Responsibilities, assume that the discussion is on duplication methods used in offices. Instead of merely describing the processes, the teacher will be able to depress a lever on his desk and the students will be instantaneously taken into a modern office building for a tour of the duplicating center, where they will see persons at work doing a variety of tasks. The commentary will be provided by the teacher. If at some point the teacher should observe something that he would like to discuss further at a later time, he will be able to depress another lever and a photograph is made of the desired situation which can be shown on an overhead projector.

All the visual visits will be for the purpose of heightening students' level of understanding. Teachers will be responsible for aiding students in learning how to observe, in interpreting observations, in drawing inferences, and in developing ability to see relationships.

The Teacher in the Laboratory

Instruction in the laboratory will be individualized. Students will work at their own pace; there will be materials for additional practice and trial. Students will be able to test themselves. For example, in basic typewriting, the student will be able to set a timer at his desk so that he can take a timed writing. Videotapes will be immediately assessible to the student to see how a particular aspect of a skill should be performed. Also, students will be able to see how a skill is used in the work context. For example, if a student is learning how to handle long-distance telephone calls, he will be able to depress a lever at his work station and see a highly skilled telephone operator handling complicated long-distance calls competently. Every individual task that the student learns can be viewed in context so that the meaningfulness of the skill becomes evident and serves as motivation to improve competency.

During the school day, the typical activity of the teacher in the laboratory will be to provide tutorial services to students. The teacher will be equally concerned with the student who seeks assistance because he has come to a point beyond which he cannot make any progress, and with the student who is encountering success but appears to have the potential for higher level development.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

The supervisor, as she is known today in departments where clerical operations are performed, will not be in the business offices of the 1980's. There will be sufficient feedback from the machine systems to determine the productivity of the individual worker. The individual worker will also be better educated and will be expected to assume more responsibility for evaluating his own work. Such a situation in the business office implies that the teachers in the schools must teach students to understand standards of achievement and to evaluate their own work.

Achievement standards in the clerical programs will be work-related. Students will be expected to perform tasks in simulated situations. At appropriate times during the program of studies, students will spend full days completing the tasks that are deemed typical in the business office for a particular level of work. Only when a student's performance at one level is considered fully satisfactory, does he progress to the work of the next level.

In the course of developing skill, the student's performance will be recorded on videotape so that he will be able to analyze his skill. He will write a critical assessment of his behavior. Then he and the teacher may review the videotape together, noting places where improvement is suggested. There will be times when such material will be shared with a group of students as a means of helping all improve their performance.

The teachers will use carefully constructed evaluation measures that incorporate the best techniques currently used in personnel selection in business. The teacher will attempt to use the highest standards of the business community and will strive to have students achieve them. Teachers will not be guided by the minimum standards set by businesses which for one or more reasons are unable to attract the best talent in the community. The teacher, of course, will be dealing with a range of abilities and will plan a variable range of achievement levels to prepare students for job opportunities.

There will be cooperation between the companies that seek employees and the school to the extent that the tests for employment may be given in the school and sent to the company prior to the time of personal interviews with prospective candidates.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

In the vocational clerical program, the teacher will be a person who is completely at home in two worlds; he will know the business operations fully, and he will understand what must be provided if competent workers are to be prepared. Teachers will be specialized along the options that are provided in the curricula. There will be no such person as a general purpose clerical teacher. The teacher's preparation will have included much analysis and interpretation of business office operations and the implications for teaching and learning. The teacher will have had some work experience and will continue to maintain close relations with a number of business offices as a means of determining what the preparation should be.

Among the critical qualifications of the teacher will be his ability to select appropriate materials and methods for optimal learning on the part of the students and his ability to assess the student in his development. The teacher must be a skillful diagnostician so that he can redirect the student who is encountering difficulty or is failing to make the progress for which he appears to have aptitude. The teacher is basically an interpreter and an assessor. He translates the demands of the business office into meaningful learning experiences for students and then is constantly assessing the progress and growth of those students.

PROJECTING CHANGES WITH QUALITY IMPROVED

There is a degree of utopian aura surrounding projections into the unforeseeable. So, as projections are made about clerical education, we go off the concrete road of reality onto the fuzzily marked path of possibilities. We see the teacher with impeccable qualifications for his position, with a high level of professional commitment, and with wisdom to judge, to assess, to evaluate. We see an educational organization that provides the facilities and structure to accommodate students of all levels of abilities and with varying degrees of interests and aspirations. We see the business community and the formal school enterprise working together to enhance the educational experiences of prospective workers and thus the productivity of the labor force. Are such observations utopian?

Could not the quality of man's behavior show marked improvement in the next two decades if man consciously gave attention to such a concern? The answer ought to be "yes."

4. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR SALES AND RELATED OCCUPATIONS

Chapter 11

Strengths of the Past and Present

RAYMOND A. DANNENBERG, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo

During the period of the 1960's, education for the world of work has received increased attention and has been viewed with a good deal of concern. Educators and businessmen have been working together more closely in the past eight years than in any previous period of a comparable length.

This increased attention, concern, and cooperation have been especially evident in the area of preparing youth for the distributive occupations, i.e., retailing, merchandising, marketing, sales, and sales related occupations.

This chapter is concerned with the strengths, past and present, of vocational education for the distributive occupations and with the cause for its present status. As a point of reference, a review of the current high school distributive education program appears in order.

CURRENT HIGH SCHOOL DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION PROGRAM

High school distributive education is a vocational program designed to prepare youth for careers in marketing and distribution. Currently two methods are being emphasized:

1. The cooperative method wherein the student receives correlated instruction in school and makes application in a realistic on-the-job situation in the business community
2. The project method wherein the student completes a number of prac-

tical projects which simulate as nearly as possible actual on-the-job experience. Short-term work experience may be one of the projects.

Prior to the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the cooperative method received greatest emphasis. Since the implementation of the 1963 Act, with its emphasis upon preparatory education, the project method[1] has come into focus.

The current high school distributive education curriculum emphasizes five major areas:

1. The functions of marketing and distribution
2. The social skills—human relations
3. Technology—knowledge of products and services
4. Fundamental skills—application of mathematics and communications
5. Economic understandings—the free enterprise system.[2]

The above curriculum, with the use of the cooperative and/or project method, is designed to prepare career-oriented students for basic entry positions and/or career development positions in the marketing and distribution field.

The teacher-coordinator is usually a specially prepared individual who has completed a distributive teacher education program at the bachelor's and/or master's degree level. Such a program of studies emphasizes:

1. Technical content preparation in the marketing, salesmanship, and retailing areas
2. Professional distributive teacher education courses including student teaching with a well-qualified distributive education teacher-coordinator
3. Occupational preparation usually consisting of a minimum of two years, some of which may be on a supervised work-study basis.

---

[1] In fact during May 1967, two national distributive teacher education seminars devoted entirely to the project method were held at Michigan State University and Arizona State University. These were attended by most of the distributive teacher educators in the United States. Also, two such seminars were conducted for selected distributive education teacher-coordinators from throughout the nation during the summer of 1967. These were held at Rutgers, The State University; and The University of Wisconsin.

[2] Nelson, Edwin L. "A Conceptual Framework for Curriculum Development in Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum* 20: 10-13; April 1966.

The strength of current distributive education is found in its emphasis upon: (a) the cooperative and/or project method, (b) a well rounded curriculum, and (c) a well prepared distributive education teacher-coordinator. These strengths should be kept in mind and used as a point of reference in reading the remainder of this chapter, which is organized into the following major topics: (a) aims and objectives, (b) curriculum, (c) tests and materials, (d) equipment, (e) standard of achievement and evaluation, (f) backgrounds and objectives of students, (g) methods of teaching, and (h) qualifications of teachers.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In the 1930's, 1940's, and part of the 1950's the emphasis in distributive education was on the place of employment. During this period, distributive education was concerned with supplementing occupational experience with education (i.e., courses in retailing, salesmanship, advertising, merchandise information, etc.). The current program emphasizes a study of subjects relating to distribution supplemented with occupational experience. This fundamental change has had a far-reaching effect upon the high school distributive education curriculum and upon the preparation of distributive education teachers and teacher-coordinators, as well as upon many other facets of this area of education for business. It has strengthened distributive education considerably.

A review of the change in the stated objectives of distributive education during this period will bring this fundamental change into focus. During the earlier period—prior to the mid-1950's—the objectives of distributive education were generally agreed upon as follows:

1. To provide the kind and amount of instruction to meet the vocational needs of individuals engaged in distribution and marketing
2. To aid in the improvement of techniques of distribution
3. To develop an understanding by those persons engaged in distribution of the responsibilities they must shoulder in maintaining a prosperous free enterprise economy.[3]

The reader should carefully examine 1 and 3 of the foregoing objectives. The complete emphasis upon the employed person should be noted. In contrast, the stated objectives for distributive education which are currently in vogue are:

---

[3] *Facts You Should Know About Distributive Education.* Washington, D. C.: American Vocational Association. p. 4.

1. To offer instruction in distribution and marketing
2. To aid in improving the techniques of distribution
3. To develop an understanding of the wide range of social and economic responsibilities which accompany the right to engage in distribution in a free, competitive society.[4]

This fundamental change in emphasis—from one of supplementing occupational experience with instruction in marketing and distribution to one of supplementing instruction with occupational experience—has been instrumental in making distributive education more palatable to high school administrators and thus has strengthened the distributive education movement to a great extent. If this had not taken place, it is doubtful that distributive educators would have been prepared for the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and for the project method.

CURRICULUM OR ORGANIZATION FOR TEACHING

The revolution in distributive education has had a far-reaching effect upon the distributive education curriculum. The curriculum evolution has moved through three phases:

1. The single course concept
2. The retailing or salesmanship multiple course approach using the cooperative method
3. The marketing and distribution concept using the project and/or cooperative method.[5]

Phase 1—Single Course Concept

A single course such as retailing, salesmanship, or merchandise information was taught to employed persons—including high school students. At times such a course was taught during working hours (part-time extension) and at times during nonworking hours (evening extension). Quite often the teacher was a retailer who had had extensive work experience. A college degree may have been a requirement but usually it was not necessary for the teacher to have had formal courses in the subjects being taught, nor professional teacher education preparation. The philosophy was "those who can do, can teach." This pattern was prevalent in the 1930's, 1940's, and prior to these two decades. It was the continuance of this pattern into the 1950's by some states and some schools that finally caused a cry for "The Program Approach to Distributive Education." [6]

---

[4] *A Study of Curriculum Development in the High School Cooperative Program.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1960. p. 20.

[5] Certain states and schools may still be in phase 1 or 2. It would appear that the strongest programs are in phase 3.

Phase 2—Multiple Course Approach

During the 1940's and early 1950's an increasing number of secondary schools were including retailing or salesmanship as a part of the business education curriculum. It was not uncommon to find schools with four one-semester courses entitled Retailing I, Retailing II, Retailing III, and Retailing IV, or courses in salesmanship from to I to IV.

For a school to receive reimbursement under the George-Barden Act, it was generally understood that it must offer the equivalent of 360 hours of related instruction with the cooperative method being a necessary part of the program. During this period—contrary to a federal emphasis—many states and schools titled their programs "Cooperative Retailing."

Within this time span, formal distributive teacher education programs were being organized at colleges and universities. These teacher education programs had a very positive impact upon the high school distributive education programs from the standpoint of quality. One of the first tasks of these new teacher education programs was to work with in-service teacher-coordinators. Later a program of studies was organized to specially prepare young men and women as distributive education teacher-coordinators. These teacher education programs were instrumental in influencing phase 3 of the curriculum evolution.

Phase 3—Marketing and Distribution Emphasis

The original intention of the George-Deen and George-Barden Acts had been to organize and promote education for distribution—not solely education for retailing. Unfortunately many states and schools began cooperative retailing programs, *not* cooperative distributive education programs. It is only within the last few years that nearly all of the states have generally accepted the concept of education for marketing and distribution in preference to the more restricted concept of education for retailing.

---

[6] Unfortunately many business educators still think of distributive education as one course in the high school curriculum.

It was during the late 1950's and early 1960's that the concept of the "discipline of distribution" received a tremendous emphasis. In fact distributive education was included in the 1960 edition of the *Evaluative Criteria*[7] as a separate entity for the first time. Since the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the cooperative method has been implemented with renewed vigor and the project method is receiving attention for the first time.

TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

One of the serious weaknesses of the past has been a lack of published textbooks and materials generally available at reasonable prices through established publishing companies. Textbooks concerned with retailing, salesmanship, advertising, and merchandise information have been on the market for many years. However, most teacher-coordinators have found it necessary to supplement such materials extensively with duplicated handouts, pamphlets from businesses, and cases drawn from personal experience. Many states have prepared curriculum guides and teaching outlines. The University of Texas has prepared a series of materials designed for the distributive education program.

It would appear that the lack of materials from established publishing companies is about to be corrected. For example one of the major publishing companies now has available, or soon will have, self-contained project manuals on the following topics:

1. Advertising and Displaying Merchandise
2. Selecting and Buying Merchandise
3. Receiving, Checking, and Marking
4. Control of Inventory
5. Credit and Collections
6. Cases in Merchandising

---

[7] *Evaluative Criteria.* Washington, D. C.: National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, 1960.

7. Cashier-Checker
8. Store Location and Arrangement
9. Merchandising Mathematics

It is the writer's understanding that at least one other major producer of high school business textbooks has a similar list of materials in progress.

EQUIPMENT

The current emphasis upon the project method is causing a revitalization of the belief that the discipline of distribution should be taught in an atmosphere which simulates the downtown laboratory. Some cooperative distributive teacher-coordinators have not seen the need for a specially designed and equipped classroom because their students have access to the real situation each day. However, the project method—it would appear to this writer—will certainly require the use of a well-equipped distributive education classroom.

In the past, the equipment situation in distributive education has been one of extremes. On the one extremity, the distributive education curriculum was taught in a classroom with four bare walls with no specialized merchandising fixtures available. The other extreme—and one equally indefensible—has been having too much equipment which was not used and only gathered dust. The strong distributive education programs of the past and present have been and are those adequately equipped and where such specialized fixtures are thoroughly used.

STANDARD OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

One of the most controversial issues in distributive education in the past, still present, and probably continuing into the future has been and is concerned with the standard of achievement and evaluation. Some persons erroneously view distributive education as "training for salesmanship . . . salesmanship is clerking . . . and who needs training to be a clerk."

Basically, distributive educators consider their programs successful if the students are successful in the labor market. The programs are designed to prepare students for basic entry jobs and for career development positions. One of the strengths of the past and present has been the success with which the distributive education program has been able to meet this standard.

BACKGROUNDS AND OBJECTIVES OF STUDENTS

The basic purpose of this chapter is to discuss the strengths of the past and present, as the weaknesses are to be discussed in another chapter. At times it is difficult to resist the temptation to discuss both topics. This is especially true concerning the students' backgrounds and objectives.

Currently the concept of the "career objective" is being emphasized. The student should have determined, prior to entering the distributive education program, that a career in distribution serves his interest. The nature and importance of the career objective has been summarized as follows:

> A lifetime career in distribution is for all practical purposes marked with changing employment status resulting from promotion, newfound opportunities, offer of greater compensation, leaving the field and returning, and the like. For a great many who pursue careers in distribution this element of change (perhaps chance, too) seems to be the pattern. One does not necessarily "practice" in a specific distributive occupation in the same way lawyers, chemists, doctors, or tradesmen practice in their respective fields. Because distribution is a dynamic and a fruitful field, and many of the occupations therein involve problem-solving, decision-making activities, people advance in the field as the result of personal abilities and broad general experience. This emphasizes the necessity of students' successful performance in current positions, if distributive education is to make an impact upon that large portion of the labor force engaged in distributive occupations.
>
> Instruction in the cooperative program must therefore be directed toward the needs of the students as they experience employment as cooperative students and as they plan for their initial full-time positions. For such instruction to be meaningful and purposeful, each student, to the best of his ability, should select an occupation toward which to direct his energies and interests. While it is recognized that some students may change their minds before they complete the high school program, there is much value in determining a goal, even though tentative, before entering upon the study of distribution. One of the chief aids to learning is a sense of purpose. The instruction will have greater meaning and importance for the student when he realizes its significance to him after graduation.[8]

---

[8] *A Study of Curriculum Development in the High School Cooperative Program*. pp. 6-7.

Certainly the implementation of the career objective concept has strengthened and will continue to strengthen the distributive education program.

METHODS OF TEACHING

One of the strengths of the past and present in distributive education has been the emphasis upon using a variety of teaching methods to teach the distributive subjects. This reputation for distributive education was recently emphasized when the writer completed a speech to a small group of business educators. At the conclusion of the speech, one of the group came up and said: "Like all good distributive educators, I see you are never without your flannel board."

Unfortunately, the lecture method is still used too much. One of the difficulties is that "teachers teach as they were taught and not as they were taught to teach." Undoubtedly some of the poorest examples of teaching—at least from the standpoint of variety of methods—take place within the college or university preparing the teachers.

Some of the methods being used most frequently in addition to the lecture method are the following:

1. Case problems—Many textbooks now include case problems which make it easy for the teacher-coordinator to use. Also, there are special case-problem books now available for use in high school distributive education classes.
2. Programed instruction—As more programs are being written and as more teacher-coordinators become aware of the value of using programed instructional materials, more use is being made of this method.[9]
3. Simulation or business games—This is a stimulating and valuable method but unfortunately only a few materials have been produced for high school use.
4. Variety of audio and visual methods—Flannelboards, flipcharts, chalkboards, slide projectors, tape recorders, and in some cases closed circuit television are in common usage.
5. Occupational experience—The most frequent method used is, of course, actual on-the-job experience. This method is used with the project plan as well as the cooperative plan.

---

[9] See Dannenberg, Raymond A. "Programed Instruction for Distributive Education." *American Vocational Journal* 38: 27-28; April 1963; and Dannenberg, Raymond A. "The Future of Programed Instruction for Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum* 20: 23-24; October 1965.

As previously stated, one of the strengths of distributive education has been a constant awareness that a variety of teaching methods must be used. In summary the following quote from a recent article by Knouse appears appropriate:

> While many approaches in classroom teaching procedures will produce equally good results, the teacher should experiment to find which techniques are especially suitable to his personality and individual interests of his students. No one method or device should be used excessively. However, by varying the approach in the classroom, the teacher can be sure that the sessions will be more interesting and valuable for the students. Variety in teaching methods also makes class presentation more interesting for the teacher. Many times the so-called "in-school dropout" or the "in-class dropout" may be the result of an uninteresting and monotonous classroom routine. The teacher must continuously guard against drifting into a teaching pattern where only a small number of approaches are used.[10]

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

It has been said many times that "the teacher-coordinator is the key to a strong distributive education program." It follows then that the teacher preparation program is an essential part of this strength.

Most states have designated at least one college or university as a distributive teacher-coordinator preparation institution. Some of the states with the older teacher preparation programs now have designated several institutions for this purpose.

In the early days of the distributive education movement, the primary concern in certifying a distributive education teacher-coordinator was upon work experience. If the person had 3 to 5 years of work experience in a retailing occupation, he was certifiable even though this person lacked technical content, teacher preparation, and professional distributive education courses. At times a college degree was not required.

Presently the emphasis in most states is upon a planned and balanced sequence of courses and occupational experiences. The typical distributive teacher preparation program consists of: (a) technical content courses in marketing and distribution, (b) professional distributive and general teacher education courses, and (c) occupational experience. Some states now require a college major in the technical content courses related to distribution. Most states expect the teacher preparation program to offer professional distributive teacher education courses and for the student teaching experience to be under the direction of a qualified distributive education teacher-coordinator. Usually two years of full-time, recent, and verifiable distributive occupational experience are required. Some of this occupational experience may be gained under the direction of the teacher education institution.

---

[10] Knouse, Reno S. "Innovations in Distributive Education—Planning to Teach." *Business Education Forum* 21: 6; April 1967.

SUMMARY

This chapter deals with strengths of past and present programs that are concerned with preparing young people for the sales and sales-related occupations. During this discussion certain fundamental changes regarding aims and objectives, curriculum, and teacher preparation, as well as other areas have been noted. These changes have greatly strengthened the current program and should add stature to the program of the future.

SELECTED REFERENCES

DANNENBERG, RAYMOND A. "Programmed Instruction for Distributive Education." *American Vocational Journal* 38: 27-28; April 1963.

DANNENBERG, RAYMOND A. "The Future of Programmed Instruction for Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum* 20: 23-24; October 1965.

Distributive Education Organization and Administration. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1940. 50 pp.

Facts You Should Know About Distributive Education. Washington, D. C.: American Vocational Association. 8 pp.

KNOUSE, RENO S. "Innovations in Distributive Education—Planning to Teach." *Business Education Forum* 21: 5-6; April 1967.

NELSON, EDWIN L. "A Conceptual Framework for Curriculum Development in Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum* 20: 10-13; April 1966.

SAMSON, HARLAND E. "Organizing Participating Experiences in Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum* 20: 25-26; February 1966.

A Study of Curriculum Development in the High School Cooperative Program. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1960. 22 pp.

Chapter 12

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

ROBERT E. ROSE, Boise College, Boise, Idaho

The basic purpose of this chapter is to explore some of the problems which have confronted distributive education coordinators, supervisors, teacher-trainers, and administrators over the past thirty years. Since the inception of distributive education classes with the passage of the George-Deen Act, this particular discipline has sometimes been considered the salvation of business vocational education and sometimes the orphan of business training. Some of the problems mentioned have largely been overcome; others have been solved in some programs and still exist in others; while research and a great deal of effort will be needed on others that still plague this growing area of education.

Distributive education, by its very nature, requires somewhat unorthodox approaches and creates unusual problems for those who are accustomed to traditional business subjects. Even among business teachers of extensive experience, it often represents an unknown and uncharted area of understanding.

PHILOSOPHY AND OBJECTIVES OF DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

Definitions

Few people seem to be in agreement as to just what constitutes a vocational program—with even less agreement as to the position of distributive education within the vocational framework. Too often an arbitrary decision on whether or not federal or state vocational money goes into a program provides the only difference in the status of that program. Perhaps the only area of common agreement is the necessity of training for a specific occupational objective in the area of distributive occupations. Employability and successful performance on the job are the basic criteria for the judging of a successful program. The same objectives, however, could be stated for a properly developed secretarial science or bookkeeping program, yet they are often excluded from a discussion of vocational business training.

Division of Effort

It is unfortunate that a schism has developed in the ranks of business instructors. While many individuals consider the areas of distributive education and all other business education subjects as vocational in nature, not everyone would agree to this approach. All vocational education and business education have been under rather heavy fire from academic-minded individuals in recent years. Instead of banding together on their many common grounds, the proponents of the two areas have often fought against each other in organizations for teachers such as the National Business Education Association and the American Vocational Association, through different organizations for the students, different meetings, and different advisory groups. The old saying of "they went off in all directions" seems to be appropriate for business training at this time. It seems imperative that cooperation be implemented at once to avoid fractionalization and great damage to both areas.

Part of the problem often voiced by professional associations concerning teacher apathy in their groups may be traced to this area of apparent conflict. Teachers, undecided as to where their loyalty should lie, may take the obvious and easiest path available—that of joining no organization and taking part in no professional activities.

Curriculum Development—The High School

Little has been changed in high school programs since the early days of distributive education training. Too many schools still operate a one-year program combining some work experience with a related class and consider this a total program. Most writers in the field have recommended a two- or even three-year course of study for a truly vocational approach. No basic "core" of courses or areas of knowledge has received acceptance by state departments or coordinators.

Perhaps because of the time limitation, primary emphasis has been placed on aspects of sales training and business organization to the detriment of the related skills that may be necessary for success in the distributive occupations. Probably more complaints are received from businessmen concerning the fringe areas of English usage, the ability to speak, basic mathematics, and handwriting than about the basic training in the technical aspects of retailing or sales training.

The distributive education program seems to attract students with a wide variety of backgrounds and abilities. More provision should be made for challenging the brighter student and bringing along the student with less ability. Too little allowance for individual differences is found in the typical program today.

Innovation in the classroom is also needed. Distributive education material must change with developments in the business community, and additional experimentation is especially needed in the development of improved techniques of instruction in the classroom situation.

Curriculum Development—College Programs

Too often the college programs are no more than extensions of high school distributive education efforts. The college program should be aimed at a higher interest level in the distributive field than would be available to a high school graduate. The level of training and the type of experience found in training stations should be upgraded. Survey after survey shows that retailing concerns usually prefer college graduates with four-year degrees for their management training programs but have had a singular lack of success in attracting such individuals. The door is wide open for well-trained two-year graduates to enter these programs if they have the proper background and training.

The curriculum itself may also be suspect in some colleges. Few schools have placed much emphasis, for example, on data processing and automated methods in retailing. Although surveys have shown that this field is not automating as fast as industrial complexes have done, changes are rapidly occurring and need to be considered in the distributive education training.

More specialization is also needed on the college level. Some progress has been made in specialization, but many programs are merely a continuation of high school classes with a little more depth in subject matter. Special programs sponsored by automotive dealer associations, lumber dealer associations, and others have been instituted in a few schools and show great promise. More research is needed to perhaps develop a basic training for the first two years on the college level with increased specialization in a specific industry for at least a part of the second year.

College training stations should be limited in nature, and perhaps work experience for credit should be allowed only on the sophomore level. Students could be encouraged to work during the freshman year in a position not supervised by the college. By using fewer stations the best of the training positions could be selected and highly trained employers used to give the student a breadth of experience in different facets of the business operation. Coordinators could also spend their time to more advantage by dealing with fewer stations.

College courses should emphasize more of the "why" in management aspects rather than the mechanical approach such as teaching the cash register operation and similar functions of business operations. College programs will have to prove to businessmen, however, that they are training such higher-level individuals and that their students should deserve more responsible positions.

Creation of New Programs

Too often state departments of vocational education have placed primary emphasis on the number of new programs started rather than using their good offices to develop higher-quality programs in their respective areas. The "numbers game" for state reports may cloud the proper and orderly development of a good state-wide program. Some states have shown an increase in the number of new programs yet little net increase in successful programs, because the number of schools which have been disenchanted with the program and dropped out nearly equals the new starts for a particular period of time.

With the rush of activity in other high school or college programs, the adult education program in distributive occupations is often overlooked unless someone at the state level emphasizes it. The adult education program not only provides a community service but is also an important public relations factor for the total program.

Needed Research

Distributive education has suffered from a lack of effective research in the field. Part of this lack may be due to the fact that relatively few individuals have completed doctoral training with emphasis in the area. Master's research has also been sparse and tends to be quite shallow and local in nature.

The spring 1967 issue of the *National Business Education Quarterly* listed 141 doctorates in the business education area as "completed" or "in progress." Only four were related to distributive education. Of the research reported for master's degrees, only eight out of 364 studies were directly concerned with distributive education and two others with a combination of distributive and office education.

The Closed Door

Not too many years ago high school distributive education training was considered to be terminal only, in nature. The very thought of a high school distributive education student furthering his education by attending college brought reactions of horror from supervisory personnel and those writing in the field. This closed door has been opened, and it is quite common to find high school distributive education students furthering their training at community colleges, junior colleges, and even some four-year schools that have adopted mid-management training. The next step is concerned with whether or not there will be a closed door at the end of two years of college training. There are those in state departments of vocational education and especially in area vocational schools who believe all post-high school training should be terminal. The majority of students in college distributive education programs will not wish to progress beyond the two-year level of training. However, the very fact that the door is closed, which would prohibit them from continuing if they ever so desired, keeps good students from taking part in the mid-management program. Business firms hiring these graduates may often desire to send them back to complete a college degree for further advancement within the company. Those students limited by terminal credit arrangements usually find it impossible to start over and devote four years of school and are therefore restricted in company advancement. The opening of such a door, however, necessitates an upgrading of some of the teachers of distributive education subjects on the college level. In order to condone a transfer credit possibility, it is extremely important that the courses be of lower-division college caliber and taught by well-qualified individuals.

Even though most students will stop at the two-year level, the few that go on and the impression left by those who stop is a valuable tool in strengthening the college-level programs.

Teacher Training

Although great strides have been made in developing departments of distributive education in teacher-training institutions and in the assignment of teacher-training specialists for the various states, much remains to be done in this area. These programs are often rather unwanted appendages to the department of business education, and the vocational concept may not be found in these institutions. There exists much danger, however, in the assignment of such programs to a vocational school or division where over-emphasis on vocationalism at the expense of specific teacher training and coursework in the major field may be found. Some teacher-trainers have little background themselves in the field of vocational education; and although state departments place great emphasis on proper selection of these individuals, more work could be done.

STUDENT SELECTION

The control and selection of students for distributive education programs is often found outside the jurisdiction of the coordinator. The coordinator should have the right of selection for students in such a specialized program. At the very least, he should have a cooperative agreement with the counselor where such counselors make the selection of classes for all students in the school system. Distributive education programs need to be promoted in order to attract desirable students.

Failure To Sell the Program to Counselors

A great many high school counselors, by the very nature of their background in the humanities and social sciences, seem to find it difficult to adopt a vocational concept in dealing with certain types and classes of students. There often seems to be a wide gap in the attention paid to students—that is, between the students who seem to have the background for higher education in the professions and those that, because of their abilities or interests, desire careers in the distributive area. This situation has led to faulty counseling in many instances whereby students without the ability or desire to attend college and major in professional areas have still been counseled into traditional college preparatory programs in mathematics, sciences, and languages which do not prepare them for job entry in the business field. A large portion of the blame for this often tragic counseling can be laid at the doorstep of vocational teachers and administrators. They have failed to sell the vocational program to the counselors and explain properly the position of these courses, the curriculum, and the over-all educational objective of the high school or college. Larger school systems, however, should have a portion of the counseling staff with a vocational background and with vocational objectives in mind.

The Dumping Ground

Almost from the beginning of distributive education, the assignment of problem students, extremely low achievers, and sometimes delinquency problems to the vocational program has been common. Administrative pressures have been brought to bear on counselors to assign problem students to such a program whereby they are away from school at least part of the day and will therefore be less of a problem to the administrative staff. Again, when this has occurred, it is often the case of the lack of "selling" on the part of the vocational staff and their failure to sell the administrative staff on the true value of vocational education. This is especially tragic since the coordinators are supposed to be trained in all aspects of a selling task.

Students with very little interest of a vocational nature often enter the program because they want to be able to get a part-time job to earn money to support a car, buy new clothes, or provide extra money for social activities. For long-range achievement, it is necessary that those students be weeded out and not given credit for on-the-job training.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND STATE RELATIONS

A distributive education coordinator operates in a somewhat unique situation whereby he owes a degree of allegiance to the school, a state department of vocational education, and perhaps a department of business education. This often means a breakdown of communications with one or more of the supervisory personnel with which he must deal. It can create needless duplication of forms and reports that take up valuable time.

Improper Use of Extended Contracts

Distributive education teachers are often the recipients of ten-month or longer contracts in contrast to the usual nine-month teaching contract in public schools. This extra time has traditionally been meant for the public relations work necessary to perpetuate the program, preparation of extra reports which must be filed with the state vocational departments and school systems, and for the development of training stations for the students for the following year. In some extreme cases school boards have been known to accept the additional money for vocational education and still pay the instructor on the basis of a nine-month contract and the single salary system found in many schools. This means that the coordinator does the work without compensation or that this needed area of endeavor is not accomplished at all. At the other end of the spectrum, the tenth month has become extra vacation of the paid variety to coordinators. So little work is accomplished during this period as to make the added expenditure a waste of money. This additional time is not meant for a coordinator to sit in his office and prepare lessons or tests for the next school year. It is a field experience which can have a high degree of value if it is used properly.

Coordination Time

Many schools, especially on the secondary level, have failed to allow enough time for proper coordination in the business community. An hour of released time in the late afternoon is not sufficient when these teachers must prepare and teach four or five other classes. Again, this problem can be largely traced to a lack of selling the program to the proper administrative officials who have not been shown the value of coordination time and how it affects classroom work and the program in general. This situation is more often found where communities have accepted the distributive education program simply to get federal and state monies which can then be channeled to other purposes.

Outside Activities

Too many principals of secondary schools seem to feel that coordination time allowed is "free time," and therefore the coordinator may be asked to run the school store, handle money for concessions, take care of ticket sales, or anything to do with school business or selling. While coordinators should share in extracurricular loads, they should not be asked to shoulder an unreasonable amount of work because of their released time from actual classwork. The distributive education program must suffer from such activities.

QUALIFICATIONS OF PERSONNEL

Distributive education, like many other professional fields, suffers from a lack of truly qualified personnel. Instances may be found whereby a former home economics teacher or agriculture teacher is assigned the distributive education position because he happens to be available and no other qualified personnel could be hired at that time.

Lack of Education

Because of the pressure brought to bear to certify coordinators with good experience in the distributive field but with sometimes no background in the field of education or vocational education, serious problems may develop. Emergency certification has often created local problems where the instructor has no idea of how to properly conduct a class or has no vocational training in coordination techniques in dealing with the public. The proper balance of education and work experience is an absolute necessity in the vocational area. Even those individuals who are less than fully qualified usually fail to return to school for additional college work in the summer—especially for graduate study in their respective areas. The teaching of driver education does not provide an effective answer. While it is recognized that the low salaries in many institutions rather force the teachers to supplement their incomes during the period, this fails to provide long-range answers to the problem. At least periodic returns to school or additional work experience are extremely desirable.

Also because of lack of funds, many coordinators do not attend state, regional, or national conventions and workshops to keep abreast of the newest developments in distributive education. There is also a problem in that the skills involved in the teaching of the distributive education curriculum are not as basic and well defined as the ones for office education. This situation creates a problem of proper preparation.

Coordinator Experience

Again, because of the lack of truly certified personnel, there is often pressure brought to bear to hire improperly experienced teachers for distributive education. Similar examples of teachers with experience in home economics or agriculture being pressed into service because they hold a vocational certificate are found too often. Some current college programs place emphasis on part-time work experience for coordinators in order to meet minimum state requirements. Distributive education, by its very nature, should not be a textbook type of course or experience for the student. The coordinator without the proper background of selling is at a great disadvantage in creating meaningful classes for students. It is doubtful that such work in many instances can really be termed vocational in nature.

Specialization

More specialization is needed for the distributive education teacher. Distribution is too broad an area to really expect a single teacher to cover the entire field in a realistic and professional manner. Even in schools where only a single coordinator is employed, the value and talents of other members of the high school or college faculty should not be overlooked. These people, because of their special skills in such subjects as English, psychology, mathematics, or management may be valuable guest speakers and provide much additional help in the classroom situation. Coordinators may also fall into the trap of devoting their teaching to the preparation of students for contests which may glorify the particular coordinator and school rather than adequately preparing students for careers in distribution.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

Many schools are still forced to operate within the conventional classroom without laboratory equipment necessary to do the proper job. Such equipment can still be developed and placed in a room to provide multipurpose use for other classes when the distributive education classes are not in session—especially during the afternoon. Those programs operating with archaic equipment provide a genuine disservice to the students. Unless the equipment and facilities used in the classroom are similar in nature to those found on the job when the students graduate, it is hard to justify the teaching of such a program. Many programs have been able to borrow modern equipment temporarily for the upgrading of their students.

Most school libraries have inadequate holdings of specialized materials important in distributive education programs. This necessitates the development of a small reference library within the distributive education room. It is extremely important to keep such material current.

Although rapidly improving, there are still gaps in available texts for distributive education. Some schools have been able to add supplementary materials in the special library situation for these students. Others have not had the funds to accomplish this. In some cases some college books have been selected for use on the high school level because of the lack of high school materials available. This situation usually results in confused students or a very "watered down" presentation.

BUSINESS COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Distributive education programs, by their very nature, require more public contact with the business community than any other educational facet of the school system. Improper public relations can destroy the program that might have an excellent potential. The coordinator needs to become known as an expert in his field of endeavor. A certain amount of basic consulting work may even be found on the high school level although this is more prevalent on the college level. Such work increases the coordinator's status within the business community.

Improper Training Stations

Often the press of activities which require a training station for each distributive education student leads to the use of training stations which do not actually provide the type of training desirable for these students. State and local regulations place pressures on the coordinator to find a training station for all enrollees in the program, and this often means the acceptance of such poor stations or the acceptance of a place of employment where a student has already been working and has no relation to the distributive education field. The work experience gained must be meaningful in the preparation of the student for occupational competency. To award credit on either the college or high school level for any other training should be unthinkable. Some training station employers have not been properly sold on the distributive education program, and they look upon the student as a source of part-time employment only. These employers care little about what training the student receives as long as the task involved is accomplished to their satisfaction. There is little movement of the student into various sections of the business and little educational value involved. Other training stations may be poor because of the lack of understanding and ability on the part of the employer to help the student grow in his job. They may be interested in the program and try to succeed, but accomplish little.

Where two, three, or more programs exist in a larger city, the coordinator often faces additional problems. In small towns with one program, the businessmen are often sold and the townspeople ask about the program and talk about it because they are high school oriented. In the larger cities, few people even know what distributive education is or that it exists, much less understand it. A position of all-city coordinator to develop public relations work and to bring together coordinators of various schools in common efforts to pass along tips on curriculum, handling of students, fund raising, and club activities would greatly enhance the program.

These training station sponsors, whether good or bad, may have too much responsibility for the success or failure of the cooperative student. Proper balance of control and continuous checking by the coordinator as to the training received on the job is a necessity. It is easy for the coordinator to assume that the proper attention and training is being received simply because the employer is a successful businessman.

Advisory Committees

The advisory committee concept in distributive education often has been overworked yet underused. Advisory committees, existing only for their own sake, accomplish little and do nothing to support the program either on the high school or college level. Meetings in which nothing is accomplished tend to play down the value of distributive education programs in the minds of the businessmen that are so badly needed to support such a program. Such meetings can be most useful when properly directed and controlled and when the businessmen can see the real value of their meeting. These people often do not understand their responsibilities and unless carefully chosen may damage the program instead of helping it. Advisory committee meetings should be carefully planned and called only when they can serve a purpose.

Community Resources for the Classroom

Probably every article written in the last thirty years has encouraged coordinators to use extensively resources from business communities. Distributive education lends itself well to the use of field trips—trips carefully planned to upgrade the student's knowledge—and guest speakers in specialized areas. Distributive education cannot be a textbook type of course, and these activities can be valuable supplements to the education of the students. Too often, however, businessmen are not asked to take part in the program. Most of them take their responsibility seriously and will go to great lengths to prepare a lesson or a speech to a student group.

Employment Relations

Too often the coordinator spends all his time in developing his public relations with department heads and general store managers relative to the training stations for his people. Additional work is needed to sell employment directors and supervisors on the value of hiring these students both as part-time students and full-time employees on graduation. Much more could be done in the effective placement of graduates that would enhance the reputation of the program. Competent follow-up is also necessary to determine the value of training received by these students with a view to possible adjustment of information offered during the course. Employers often want students at times when they are not available, such as during the noon hour as relief for regular employees. Rigid school applications may make this impossible, but the potential should not be overlooked. Class hours on the college level can often be adjusted. For example, classes for students in fashion merchandising can be scheduled in the early morning and afternoon to allow students to work during the rush hour in most women's departments from 11 a.m. to 2 p.m.

Assignment of Problem Students

Invariably the distributive education program will enroll students who create problems in on-the-job training where it is imperative or required by the state or school system that students enrolled in distributive education be employed. It may be important to transfer the student from the program entirely rather than continue to place him in job situations which may destroy any good future relations with the businessman and training stations for students who will come through the program later. It should be remembered that the employer is not being paid to control problem students and that he has the right to discharge them for cause at any time.

CONCLUSION

Many problems have been raised in the preceding pages concerning the application of the distributive education program. It is difficult for the writer to act as the "devil's disciple" concerning an area that has occupied a good part of his business and teaching career. Only by bringing to light, however, the problems which confront an area such as distributive education can the as yet not realized promise of the potential of distributive education be realized. Berthold Auerbach once said, "The little dissatisfaction which every artist feels at the completion of a work forms the germ of a new work."

Great strides have been made in the development of competent professional programs, but much more remains to be done. A little dissatisfaction with the results of vocational sales training to date may reap great rewards in the development of better programs in the future.

Chapter 13

Projections for the Future

LEROY BUCKNER, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton

Changing times, new developments, and advanced thinking create need for new concepts. There are two different trains of thought about distributive education—one traditional, the other contemporary. The traditional concept classifies education for distribution as a teaching-learning function of business education in the broadest sense.

The current trend toward education for distribution emphasizes a vocational *program* philosophy. This approach implies a sequence of studies with specific subject matter concerned with distribution clearly defined as a discipline unto itself.

This contemporary concept is further heightened by the separation of the two disciplines—business education and distributive education—in the U. S. Office of Education, in the structure of the American Vocational Association where each is contained in separate sections, and in the clear identification of each service in the administrative organizational structures of the state departments of education.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Distributive education is concerned with the education of workers in the nation's labor force in which at least 30 percent of them are engaged in distributive occupations. The labor force in 1967 was 76.5 million in round numbers; nearly 23 million people are employed in the sales and sales-supporting occupations performing marketing and distributive functions. Distributive education is concerned with the quality and amount of output these presently employed persons can produce. Can they increase their productivity rate to keep up with other segments of the economy or will distributive workers continue to be behind manufacturing, agriculture, and other industry groups in this country? Distributive education is concerned with and aims to prepare as many young people as possible to successfully enter and perform in distributive occupations. More than 6.2 million more persons under 25 will have entered or will enter the work force during the ten-year period 1960-70 than did during the previous decade.

There are several indications that America's need for workers in the distributive occupations will continue to increase. First, the growing numbers of new products and the increase in discretionary income available to consumers; second, the demand for more consumer services provided by marketing firms; and third, the snail's pace at which the productivity rate for workers in the distributive industry is increasing are indications that employment in this field will continue to rise.

"Demand creates supply" or, to put it another way, because of a short supply of effectively prepared workers in distributive occupations a strong demand exists now. This demand will continue to become stronger as business firms are faced with more problems of rising costs and diminishing profits.

The application of theories produced by physical scientists and engineers in recent years has advanced the technology of production and manufacturing to the point that the rate of further progress will be (or is now) determined by the rate of consumption of goods produced. More capital investment in the form of machines, plants, and product development appears to be the answer to increasing the rate of productivity in the goods-producing industries. But, increased capital investment in inventories, stores, or machines has only produced lower rates of inventory turnover and too many stores are suffering financial losses and business failures. Little or no reduction in the numbers and costs of personnel (the major operational cost of retailers) has been realized and, in general, very little increase has occurred in the rate of efficiency and productivity of distributive workers.

Today there is a rising demand and a short supply of trained, efficient sales and marketing personnel to move our national economy toward a hoped-for trillion-dollar mark by 1975. New products and commodities are not in short supply today.

There is no question about the tremendous part new products will play in our future economy. This year some $22 billion will be spent on research and development in the United States, and such a sum will pay for a lot of new products ready for the marketplace tomorrow. What happens to the new products in the marketplace depends upon the efficiency and skill of management and employees in the marketing firms—especially the retail stores. Retail store personnel represent the largest segment of workers in the marketing industry. As a group, the retail store workers today probably have less formal education of any kind—general or professional—than any other marketing personnel group and receive even less specialized vocational training provided by their employers than any other group of employees in our nation's industries. Thus, the demand will create the supply. The demand for trained career workers in the distributive occupations will be supplied by vocational and professional programs of education in the area of marketing and distribution.

The largest supplier of trained employees at beginning levels for entry jobs and middle-management positions in distributive firms will be the distributive education programs in the high schools, junior colleges, and other post-secondary institutions. The actual number of trained employees will be low in comparison to the total number of workers who will gain employment in the distributive occupations. In 1966 distributive education programs provided specialized vocational training for 102,000 high school students and 15,500 junior college and post-secondary school students. This represented an increase of 26 percent over the prior year (1965) in the number of students preparing for careers in distribution in grades 9 through 14 of our public schools and colleges. Considering the size of the distributive industry (23 million workers) the number of persons receiving preparatory training for the distributive occupations as replacements and needed additional workers was almost negligable (less than .5 percent).

The nation's leaders in distributive education predict a tremendous increase in the growth rate in the number of students receiving distributive education at the secondary and post-secondary levels during the period 1970-80. Edwin L. Nelson, head of distributive education in the U. S. Office of Education, believes that because distributive education represents a growth area, we should expect an average annual enrollment figure of 550,000 high school and post-secondary students. This would mean that during the 1970-80 decade the yearly enrollment of distributive education would have increased by 500 percent over the enrollment for 1965. Even this number would represent less than 2 percent of the distributive workers in the labor force of 1967, and the continued increase of distributive workers in the labor force would indicate that by 1975 one in every three persons will be in a distributive occupation.

There are many professional educators who believe that the distributive education program is now on the threshold of a rapid growth era. This era is beginning now with the establishment of additional distributive teacher education programs in colleges and universities across the nation. The 1960's have already provided the establishment of more institutional distributive teacher education programs than any previous decade. The second mark of the growth era is the establishment of "project plan" preparatory distributive education programs in high schools and junior colleges and area vocational schools. These two developments are parallel factors necessary for expansion. This needed expansion of training of people for distributive occupations was foreseen by the nation's leaders in business, education, and government who brought about the passage of the Vocational Act of 1963, which provides for and stimulates expansion in distributive education enrollment.

THE PROJECT PLAN

The project plan provides the opportunity for young people in high schools and post-secondary schools to select specialized occupations from among the hundreds of types of jobs in the field of distribution and professionally prepare for successfully entering at a preselected level. (Contrast this approach to that of the overwhelming majority of distributive workers employed today who made no plans nor obtained any preparation before entering their vocations.)

Though distributive education has been in operation since 1937 it has been available in only a very small number of high schools and junior colleges located primarily in larger metropolitan centers and to a very limited number of students within these schools. Since marketing activities of buying and selling take place in virtually every economic community, preparatory education programs for those who desire to pursue vocations in the marketing field should and can now be provided, subject only to an adequate supply of teachers and sufficient funds for salaries and physical facilities.

The project plan of distributive education makes classroom and laboratory training experiences available to any student who is at least 14 years old and who has a desire to prepare for obtaining employment in a distributive occupation. No further legal restriction exists.

The project plan is an additional operational program. Both the cooperative plan and project plan may be (and are) conducted within the same school. Therefore, distributive education will expand in the numbers of students within existing programs as well as in new programs established as readily as teachers are available.

It is expected that the project plan will be attractive to increasingly large numbers of students and, within a few years, more students will be enrolled in this plan than in the cooperative plan programs. This prediction can be accepted when the following points are considered:

1. The number of local business firms available and willing to provide part-time employment is not an enrollment limiting factor since regular part-time employment is not required as it is in the cooperative plan.
2. Flexible schedules can more easily be arranged for students since the learning activities are directed entirely by the distributive education teacher-coordinator.
3. Students will have the choice of either the cooperative or the project plan program in many schools and in many cases students may participate in the training offered by both plans of instruction.
4. Students who desire to continue formal studies beyond high school or junior college will have the opportunity to adequately prepare for doing so while enrolled in the project plan.
5. Within the high school or junior college the program will have greater "social acceptance" by teachers and parents as well as the students since the operational practices will be more conventional and more widely understood than the cooperative method of instruction.

CURRICULUMS

During the past thirty years the curriculums in distributive education have run the gamut from one- or two-hour clinics on "how to operate a cash register" to two-year junior college programs in "marketing management." The next ten years will bring further developments and variations but the expansion of the curriculums will be emanating from and around a set of *competencies* necessary for gaining entry to and successful continued employment in the marketing and distributive occupations.

The occupational competencies are comprised of the skills, knowledge, personal traits, and attitudes required of virtually all sales and marketing personnel but applied in various degrees and ways to the particular occupation. The five competency areas from which the curriculums are designed for distributive education students are as outlined:

1. Marketing (the discipline)
    - a. Buying
    - b. Selling
    - c. Sales promotion—advertising and display
    - d. Operations
    - e. Market research
    - f. Management
2. Product and/or service technology
3. Ethics, social and leadership skills in business
4. Basic skills
    - a. Applied mathematics
    - b. Communications—written and oral
5. Economic understanding

The competency areas form the framework or supporting structure for the subject matter content in the distributive education curriculums. Progressive complexity and depth are provided according to the level of courses offered and the occupational objectives of the students enrolled in the various courses. For example, the curriculum for a person preparing for a basic entry-level job in distribution is provided in the high school program. This curriculum is a rather basic program providing the knowledges and skills necessary to gain employment and satisfactorily perform as a beginning line employee. At the other extreme the junior college distributive education program provides a curriculum made up of various courses and activities for students to develop knowledges and skills within these competency areas to secure and maintain a middle-management or specialist position in marketing firms and organizations.

The distributive education curriculums in junior colleges are generally known as middle-management distribution and marketing programs.

These presently include general and specialized curriculums for the preparation of students for advanced positions in the areas of retail merchandising, wholesaling, petroleum marketing, food distribution, hotel and motel management, finance and insurance, restaurant management, and others. In addition to these programs concerned with either the marketing of the commodity or the marketing institution, other junior college distributive education curriculums emphasize a particular marketing function such as advertising, credit management, fashion buying, or industrial selling. Undoubtedly many more courses or entire programs will be developed in the future as the many activities in whole economic areas of distribution are given the attention necessary to substantially improve the productivity rate. Just as the engineering programs have developed into many "families" such as civil engineering, mining engineering, chemical engineering, and many others, so will the distribution and marketing programs expand in junior colleges.

Some leaders in distributive education seem to believe the more specialized curriculums will also be made available to high schools as more students select and prepare for the vocations in distribution, although at present only a few pilot or experimental programs are in existence. Grouping of students in classes and project laboratories according to career objectives is certainly a sound principle. However, this specialization appears to be currently practiced mainly in area vocational schools, junior colleges, and other post-secondary institutions rather than in high schools.

TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

There are currently a few good textbooks written for students of distribution and marketing at the high school and junior college level. Several of the texts are designed for use by students at either level. Among the more recent texts used primarily by high school students are *Marketing, Sales Promotion and Advertising* by Nolan and Warmke (South-Western Publishing Co., 1965), *Fundamentals of Selling* by Wingate and Nolan (South-Western Publishing Co., 1964), *Retail Merchandising* by Wingate and Weiner (South-Western Publishing Co., 1963), and *Retailing Principles and Practices* by Richert, Meyer, and Haines (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962).

One of the textbooks more widely used by students in junior college programs is *Marketing Principles and Practices* by Phillips and Duncan

(Irwin, 1960). This text, like many others, covers the entire range of marketing systems, functions, and processes. For more specialized subject matter, such as retail merchandising, hotel management, or advertising, many other more specialized texts which are written in greater detail are currently in use.

The contents of any single textbook or even several textbooks do not necessarily determine the curriculums in distributive education programs. The curriculums at the high school level are more often found in specially prepared "teaching guides" or "instruction units." Supervisors of distributive education in a number of states recommend (or require) the use of the instructional materials produced and distributed by the Distributive Education Department, Division of Extension, University of Texas. In other states the instructional materials containing the curriculums are produced by the state department of education or by special arrangements with teacher education institutions.

Because of the anticipated increases in the enrollments in distributive education programs several publishing companies are currently producing or are planning to produce instructional materials especially designed for use in the cooperative plan or the project plan programs. One publishing firm has recently created a new "marketing and distribution" department and has plans to greatly expand the published instructional materials for students and teachers in distributive education. The distributive education series now in the development process are combination text-workbooks which can be used independently or as supplements to standard textbooks now available. Many distributive educators are now engaged in writing or plan to begin preparing teaching materials especially for use in high school project plan programs and the junior college mid-management programs. The next ten years will bring forth as much published materials specifically written for distributive education as has been produced during its past thirty year history.

CLASSROOM AND LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

The cooperative plan of instruction utilizes the equipment provided by the cooperating "partner in education," the student's employer. Although most classrooms contain one or more pieces of basic equipment such as a display case or a wrapping counter for use in role playing, sales demonstrations, or illustrating principles of display design, elaborate laboratories or full mock-ups or models of retail stores are not generally found in high schools or junior colleges. Most distributive education leaders agree that the best equipped "training laboratory" is the cooperating business firm where the student works under real conditions and situations. Also, since the types of distributive occupations represented by the students' career interests are so varied in nature (service station operator, waitress, fashion buyer, industrial salesman, etc.) very few pieces of equipment have common value and use for all occupational fields. Therefore, the classrooms for cooperative programs of the future will be simple but comfortable in design, utilizing a minimum of special equipment. The principles, practices, and theories of marketing and distribution will be taught in the school classrooms by group instruction methods while the application and individualized instruction are provided by appointed, well-qualified training sponsors in the cooperating business firms.

The project plan of instruction demands the use of more specially-designed facilities with special equipment provided for students in the school if the objectives of the plan are to be reached. Multipurpose types of combination classroom-laboratories will be needed for some project plan programs while separate laboratories with carrels and many kinds of special equipment may be needed for other programs. For example, to adequately provide the students with the skills and knowledge required for successfully operating and managing an automotive service station, certain special equipment such as a hydraulic lift or a hydrometer may be essentials found in a project laboratory of the future. A large number of experimental designs for project laboratories are forthcoming as distributive educators attempt to develop the occupational competencies required of employees in distributive business firms without direct assistance of the cooperating business partners in educational process. Today, only a few widely scattered special training laboratories are available for use; however, the demand for these equipped laboratories is increasing rapidly.

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Since its establishment on a nationwide scale in 1937, distributive education has had two main objectives: (1) to prepare young people for full-time employment in the distributive occupation, and (2) to provide supplementary training to adults already employed in distributive occupations. This latter group, the adults, has accounted for a much larger number of persons provided training by distributive education (over

300,000 adults in 1966). However, the length of supplementary training received by employed adults varied considerably from as little as two hours to as much as one hundred and fifty hours or more.

Adult education will continue to be a major activity of distributive education in the future; however, the ratio of in-school youth to employed adults will probably change from the current one to three to a more proportionate figure in the next few years. This change will take place, not because of a reduction in adult education activities, but because of the increased emphasis in the in-school training programs.

Adult education programs will continue to be tailored to the needs of the businesses in the local communities. However, the direction and operation of the training programs may change in several ways. First, more and more training is being provided in cooperation with trade and professional associations for members of the associations, and often the training programs are planned and conducted jointly with active leaders of the associations. This trend should continue and will enable leaders in distributive education to provide greater depth and improved quality of instruction. Second, community colleges, area vocational-technical centers, and universities will play a larger role in adult distributive education than has been the case in the past. Because of the specialized areas of distributive training conducted by highly qualified instructors using the latest in methods, materials and equipment available in these institutions, the adult distributive education programs will identify with these institutions. The two institutions should complement each other by expanding the offerings and improving the instruction in both the college and the adult program.

A third trend concerns the training available to various marketing institutions. In the past a great deal of effort on the part of adult distributive educators has been aimed at providing training for employees of retail stores. Enrollment in the training classes has been obtained only after some effort was made to recruit enrollees and usually on a personal, door-to-door basis. While retailers have not often *asked* for the training, other marketeers—wholesalers, industrial firms, service businesses—have *demanded* tax supported distributive training programs for their employed personnel. The number of regular or continuous training programs for retail personnel such as the "retail institutes" of a few years ago is rapidly diminishing. In their places are the annual seminars, workshops, long-term courses, clinics, and other general offerings for all marketing personnel and other specialized programs for certain groups of employees such as real estate brokers or petroleum jobbers. However, while this latter trend may continue for a few more years, there are indications that a reversal will take place wherein retailing leaders will be *demanding* more assistance in the form of supplementary training for increasingly larger numbers of their retail store employees and supervisors. The cost of providing the competencies needed by retail store personnel is continuing to increase. Personnel costs represent the largest item of operational expenses. The recruiting, hiring, and training costs will reach a point where it is no longer practical (or possible) to pass them along to consumers in the form of higher purchase prices. The costs involved in acquiring the competencies will be shifted to the worker and to public education. Just as the stenographer in an office or a chemist in a laboratory must have acquired a satisfactory level of competency to enter the vocation (profession), so shall the retail salesperson, advertising copywriter, buyer, or stock manager also accept the responsibility for meeting the standards for entrance set by retail employers. And public education must provide additional assistance in the form of preparatory and supplementary training.

TEACHER EDUCATION

The year 1967 marked the thirtieth anniversary of distributive teacher education in colleges and universities. In 1937 the first full-time program in distributive teacher education was begun at Richmond Professional Institute in Richmond, Virginia. In 1960 the Council for Distributive Teacher Education was organized and comprised mainly of university distributive teacher educators. At the beginning of the school term 1966-67, over fifty colleges and universities offered full-time institutional programs for the specialized preparation of teachers of distribution and marketing in the high school, junior college, and adult distributive education programs. The majority of the teacher education programs have been in existence less than ten years. The number of distributive education majors in most of the universities is low relative to other areas of vocational education and especially to the demand for qualified and certified teacher coordinators. Parallelling this demand is a current shortage of distributive teacher educators with the professional qualifications of university instructors and the practical background and experience of vocational distributive educators.

The future looks bright in the area of teacher education. The experienced leaders in distributive teacher education are assisting others to be prepared for the leadership role in teacher education through national training seminars, research, and improved communications. A general and more widespread philosophy is developing among the institutional distributive teacher educators and will continue to develop. The distributive education programs in junior colleges, currently enrolling some 15,000 students, will provide the initial career information and incentive to students to continue collegiate studies in preparation for teaching distribution and marketing. A small but growing number of high school or junior college graduates in distributive education are currently employed as teacher-coordinators, supervisors, and teacher educators. They are "professing their profession"—that is, encouraging others to prepare for and enter the growing field of distributive education. Increasing numbers of second- and third-generation graduates are entering the teaching field with even larger percentages expected in the future.

Most distributive education leaders agree that certification requirements will be changed in the near future. These changes are almost inevitable because there is a need for more uniform requirements between states to allow for mobility of teachers. Many of the certification requirements are tacked on as additional requirements over and above that for general educators but are not so recognized in salaries or assigned duties. Also, the changes in curriculums, methods, and program organizations which have taken place since the enactment of the Vocational Act of 1963 will necessitate a review and reconsideration of teacher preparation and subsequently teacher certification. Like other areas of education, graduate studies in distributive education will become more the rule rather than the exception, and universities must and will provide for this demand for specialized studies. These graduate programs will be developed more along the lines of in-service teacher education for currently employed or previously employed distributive education personnel. The programs will be flexible yet comprehensive. They will be designed in terms of needs and desires of graduate students and cooperatively planned and executed with supervisory leaders in distributive education, general education, and business. Above all, the program plans will be experimental and will stimulate and encourage further research and experimentation.

5. EDUCATION FOR ECONOMIC LITERACY

Chapter 14

Strengths of the Past and Present

CLARENCE MAZE, JR., The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Economic literacy is the ability to understand the consequences of decisions of an economic nature, from both a personal and a cultural or social viewpoint. The economically literate person expresses his decisions through exercise of his vote in the political arena and through expenditure of his dollars in his everyday living. An economically illiterate person cannot fulfill his role as a citizen in, or as a consumer of the products of, his culture.

The process of bringing about economic literacy is known as economic education. Despite the many weaknesses of our present system of economic education, which are discussed in the following chapter, it is apparent that we have been somewhat successful in educating our citizens in the merits of our economic system—we have not had a violent economic revolution and there are no immediate signs of one. It would appear that much of the credit for the perpetuation of our economic system must go, however, to institutions other than the schools, since a large part of the citizenry has had no formal economic education through organized courses.

Leaders in business and economic education propose that we have a responsibility for providing economic education. This chapter is devoted to some of the strengths of the proposed attempts to provide the means of attaining economic literacy through the schools.

AIMS

Economics does not deal with what is right and wrong in an absolute sense. An economic system does, however, reflect the value system of a people. Given this value system, economics can help the individual understand his role in the society in which he lives. Economics therefore assumes that what is, in general, is good and that the task of education is to transmit this knowledge to the young. However, in an evolving society there are always inequities that need to be resolved and economic education strives to fulfill this function, but still within the general context of the over-all value system of the people.

The aims of economic education may be classified around two major areas: those of a personal or consumer nature and those of a broader social nature.

Personal Objectives

Education for economic literacy, from a personal or consumer viewpoint, is concerned with the wise personal uses of goods and services made available through the economic system. Commonly held objectives of this aspect of economic education are:

1. An understanding of the need for keeping adequate records of income and expenditures for budget and tax purposes
2. An understanding of the nature of credit, its sources, its costs; and a knowledge of the appropriate time to use it
3. An understanding of the legal aspects of personal business transactions
4. An understanding of the nature of risk and insurance, the different types of insurance, and their various costs
5. A knowledge of the various agencies for consumer protection, their services, and information available through them
6. An understanding of advertising and the various sales techniques that are competing for the consumer's dollar
7. A knowledge of the services provided by banks and other financial institutions
8. An appreciation of the need to provide income for nonworking years through insurance, social security, pensions, other retirement plans, and estate planning in general
9. A knowledge of the role of savings and investment in wise personal money management

10. A knowledge of the legal aspects and financial responsibilities involved in home ownership.

A study of the history of business education reveals many statements [1] of personal or consumer objectives of economic education, but the foregoing list is illustrative of the nature of these objectives. The emphasis has been on wise money management.

Social Objectives

The social objectives of economic education are concerned with the role of the individual in society—how his thoughts and actions will affect the over-all economic system. The following list of desired outcomes is commonly held as the social objectives of economic education as we have known it in the United States:

1. An understanding of the American enterprise system and an appreciation of its strengths and weaknesses
2. A knowledge of the distribution of the national income and an appreciation of the need for an equitable distribution of it among the factors of production
3. An appreciation of the importance of a continually increasing productivity as a basis for over-all economic growth
4. A knowledge of the role of government in the economy
5. A knowledge of the fluctuations in economic activity, their causes and consequences
6. An understanding of the price system in the American market
7. An appreciation of the role of the individual citizen in preserving the private enterprise system

---

[1] See, for example: Crank, F. L. "Basic Business Knowledges Parents Believe Pupils Should Know." *Business Education Forum* 11: 16-17; March 1957; Dodd, J. H. *Economics in the Secondary Schools.* p. 7; McGill, E. C. "A Look at the Business Curriculum." *Business Education Forum* 14: 6; January 1960; Price, R. G. "Business Education Contributes to General Education." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 33: 20-23 November 1949; Weaver, E. B. "What a High School Principal Thinks Business Education Should Do." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 41: 10 January, 1957; Price, R. G. "What Is Basic Business Competency?" *Appraising Business Education,* pp. 56-57; detailed outlines for courses in basic business education at an elementary and an advanced level are also given in Freeman, M. H. *Basic Business Education for Everyday Living,* 34 pp.

8. A knowledge of the labor movement and an understanding of the rights and responsibilities of labor and management toward one another
9. An understanding of the prevailing practice of the divorcement of ownership and management and the consequent responsibilities of one to the other
10. An appreciation of the moral and ethical responsibilities of business toward the public, many of which have been enacted into law
11. A knowledge of the competing economic systems in the world and an appreciation of the strengths and weaknesses of each as they exist in practice as well as in theory
12. An understanding of the types of business organizations that constitute the economic institutions in our society.

Among others, these are social competencies of an economic nature that are considered to be an integral part of general education. Business and economic educators have proposed that these should be developed in all individuals. Hence, in theory, one of the great strengths of economic education has been the realization of the need for it; however, in practice we have probably fallen short of these goals largely as a result of our curricular organizations for teaching it.

ORGANIZATION FOR TEACHING

Courses are available that meet the personal and social objectives of economic education. These courses are: general business, business law, economics, consumer economics, business principles and management, and economic geography. In an already overcrowded curriculum, however, no student can take all of these and satisfy graduation requirements and other objectives.

The course commonly known today as *general business* evolved from the junior business training course which had a primary vocational objective. Business law, business principles and management, and economic geography were adopted by the high schools from the private business colleges almost intact. Economics is quite often a watered-down version of the college course in principles of economics, and the course in consumer economics has grown out of the consumer education movement. Much of the subject matter content is overlapping in these courses.

One of the most favorable factors in economic education in recent years is the realization by leaders in the field that the content of these six courses should be combined into two courses and offered to all students at the ninth- or tenth- and at the eleventh- or twelfth-grade level. The original six courses might have been elected by all students in the schools in which they were offered, but traditionally they have been thought of as courses for business students.

Two courses, one in the early years and the other toward the end of secondary school, could emphasize respectively the personal and social objectives of economic education. They would not, of course, be mutually exclusive. We must keep in mind that at whatever level they are offered, they should fulfill a social studies requirement or a business requirement for graduation from high school.

TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

Leaders in the field of business and economic education are also the writers of the basic and more popular textbooks used in the schools. Textbook writers have done an outstanding job of reflecting the objectives of each course as those objectives have evolved in the context of their social and educational setting. These books have been revised periodically, new ideas have been incorporated, and instructional problems and aids have been continually expanded.

Perhaps the greatest weakness has not been in the individual textbooks themselves, but in the overlapping of the content between the courses using them. This weakness could be eliminated if the content of the six traditional courses were combined into two courses and made available to all students.

Perhaps in no other field has there been such a large amount and wide variety of supplementary teaching materials as in the field of economic education. Because of the general nature of economics, there is a diverse range of viewpoints on the subject matter of its content, ranging from the ultra-conservative to the extreme liberal. Most of the organized groups and business enterprises are quite willing to supply teachers with free and inexpensive materials for classroom uses. Some of these materials reflect quite adequately the concepts held to be the basic principles of the private enterprise economic system in the United States. Others, of course, are more slanted toward a particular power-structure viewpoint that must be counterbalanced by other viewpoints when used in the classroom.

Work by such organizations as the Joint Council on Economic Education and workshops sponsored through grants from such sources as the National Science Foundation and the National Defense Education Act have contributed significantly to the production and organization of materials for use in courses that attempt to increase economic literacy. While the work of these organizations has not been widely disseminated except to participants in the workshops sponsored by the two latter groups, individual teachers who have participated in them generally believe that they have benefited greatly from the learning experiences and classroom materials.

METHODS OF TEACHING

The subject matter of the traditional courses in basic business and economics is organized around teaching units. A typical course covers twelve to fifteen units in a year's work. Many teachers have found that the problems approach is an ideal method of teaching these units, especially if they have determined in advance what their students already know about the subject matter in these units and can then build upon their background in the solution of problems.

Some very fine resource units have been developed for use in the various courses that contribute to economic literacy. These resource units bring together suggested activities for individual and group work, activities for low, average, and gifted learners,[2] and reference materials for both student and teacher use. The organization of these materials and the teaching units have been one of the best developments in the field of economic education.

Business teachers who have adopted a social studies approach to the teaching of economic understandings have met with considerable success. As a general rule, however, the typical business teacher who has been trained to teach the skill courses of typewriting and shorthand prefers not to teach in the area of basic business and economics and, hence, does a poor job in this area. It seems, therefore, that more basic business and economics teachers should be trained to pattern their teaching after the problem-solving and discussion approaches utilized by social studies teachers.

---

[2] Miller, Joanne M. *Motivation in Teaching General Business.* Monograph No. 107. Cincinnati, Ohio; South-Western Publishing Co., 1963. 29 pp.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

While basic business and economics teachers should pattern their methods of teaching after their colleagues in the social studies departments, this does not mean that they should surrender their teaching of economic concepts to the social studies department as it is now staffed. Business teachers who have gone through a good teacher education program have the background courses in business administration and economics that will provide them with a reservoir of knowledge from which they can draw to teach the basic business and economics courses. Social studies teachers, as a rule, have had no business administration courses and perhaps only one or two courses in principles of economics. It is imperative that the courses in basic business and economics continue to be taught by the best-qualified teacher.

Many business teachers have not had a methods course in teaching economic concepts, and some of them have not done practice teaching in a basic business course. With a good background in business administration and economics, however, they could become quite effective basic business teachers. Perhaps teacher education schools should put more stress on professional experiences. One remedy for this situation would be the designing of a combination business-social studies major that contained no skill courses or vocational preparation, with the possible exception of typewriting. These teachers would not be torn between a love for teaching in vocational programs and the desire to develop economic literacy in all youth. Their backgrounds would be different and their orientation to teaching would be in the general education aspects of business education.

THE STUDENTS

The greatest strength in this whole endeavor of attempting to achieve economic literacy has been, and continues to be, our willingness to accept all students in the courses designed to achieve this objective. Students with varying degrees of ability and levels of aspiration are enrolled in these courses. This presents a challenge to teachers, but it also provides a living laboratory for the development of the principles of democracy upon which our social structure is founded.

When taught properly, all students, regardless of their background and life's aspirations, can profit from the study of basic business and economics. Without that knowledge gained through some organized effort, the professional person can be just as economically illiterate as the unskilled worker. As in the past, therefore, we should continue to offer economic education to all students. With better trained teachers and more teachers who have a strong desire to teach in the area of basic business and economics, we can provide all students with the fundamental competencies and understandings which lead to economic literacy.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of economic education are vague and indefinite. The ultimate test is the application of knowledge to daily living. An area as nebulous as economic understanding, and the degree to which it will be put into practice in adult life by all members of society, can only be appraised in light of the nature of our culture and the nature of its evolvement. We have achieved the most productive economic system in history and one of the highest standards of living in the world today; these developments alone attest to the over-all strength of our economic system and our understanding of it. We still have some inequities, however, and there is considerable room for improvement in each individual's understanding of our economic system.

Chapter 15

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

J. CURTIS HALL, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond

Most business teachers probably do not think first of economic literacy when they are asked to consider the purposes of business education. Many believe that concern for economic education is a recent development. While the evidence does seem to indicate that only in recent years have we done much about it, economic education has been the subject of discussion among business educators for a very long time. In 1928, a leader in business education stated that "Commercial education is fundamentally a program of economic education . . ."[1] Two years later Shields wrote:

> Real business education is economic education— economic education not of the academic sort, long on theory and short on facts, but economic education which will give the student a knowledge of the basic realities of business life and relationships. The basic science of business is economics and without a thorough grounding and awareness of economic problems much of the material included in secondary school business courses is purely additive and essentially superficial. . . . We cannot place technique and socio-business subjects on a dual basis since one is basic and the other supplementary . . . certain elements must be given most emphasis and these I take to be the economic factors.[2]

Even during the great economic depression of the 1930's when the primary concern of business education was to develop job skills, Frederick G. Nichols wrote:

---

[1] Lomax, Paul S. *Commercial Teaching Problems.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928, p. 7.

[2] Shields, H. G. "Real Business Education Is Economic Education." *Journal of Business Education,* June 1930. p. 27.

> . . . there is need for greater understanding of those inexorable economic laws, the consequences of which, good or bad, none permanently can escape.
>
> It is the obligation of business educators to see to it that their students leave them with a better understanding of those economic laws in accordance with which business must be carried on and the ways in which those laws work for good or ill to mankind. . .[3]

Nichols also suggested that adequate economic understanding could not be developed through the technical skill subjects. He suggested that:

> . . . Certain other subjects, rich in social values, must be given an important place in the commercial curriculum. These subjects are known as "social-business" subjects. . . . It is through these subjects that commercial education makes its largest contribution to the pupil's understanding of his economic environment.
>
> . . . under no circumstances should commercial teachers leave it to the social science department to produce unaided the civic intelligence so essential to business success and public welfare.[4]

Not until shortly after World War II, however, was there a serious and persistent effort to improve economic education in the public schools. Even then the major thrust did not come from business education. It came primarily through the efforts of the Joint Council on Economic Education, which sought to develop economic understanding through any appropriate course already existing in elementary schools and high schools. In 1958, ten years after the establishment of the Joint Council on Economic Education, the entire American Business Education Yearbook was devoted to the theme of "educating youth for economic competence." During the 1960's the literature in business education has rather consistently promoted the development of economic understanding as the primary aim of the basic business subjects.

THE GAP BETWEEN PROFESSIONS OF FAITH AND PRACTICE

There is an old addage about the weather that says, "Everybody talks about it, but nobody does anything about it." Perhaps this has been our greatest single weakness in the field of economic education. Business educators have been talking about it for half a century or more, but we have done too little about it in the high school. Business teachers have on the one hand sought to identify with the general education program of the high school, because they did not want to be labeled *vocational.* On the other hand, they have demonstrated their preference for teaching bookkeeping, clerical practice, office machines, record keeping, advanced typewriting, shorthand, and the like. A part of the problem has been that many have yearned for the respectability of the general education, or academic, label but have been unwilling to give up the security they have felt in the familiar routines of the vocational subjects. The typical compromise has been to profess an interest in social-business education and let someone else do something about it.

---

[3] Nichols, Frederick G. *Commercial Education in the High School.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1933. p. 61.

[4] Ibid., pp. 224-25.

DIFFUSION AND DUPLICATION OF EFFORT

Past contributions of business education to economic education have been primarily through the basic business subjects. These usually have included such courses as general business, business law, business economics, consumer economics, economics, economic geography, and business principles and management. The general business course usually has been offered in the ninth or tenth grades, while all the others typically are offered in the eleventh or twelfth grades. Only in general business have enrollments approached those in such popular vocational business courses as bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting. Enrollments in each of the upper-level basic business courses have been relatively small. The resulting diffusion of effort has tended to limit the effectiveness of our attempts to contribute to economic education.

There also has been much duplication of effort in the half dozen separate courses in basic business. All too frequently much of the content of the upper-level courses has duplicated that of the general business course. No real progress has been made in the sequential development of subject matter within the group of basic business subjects. As a matter of fact, only in the last two or three years has there been a noticeable movement toward a logical sequence of subject matter within any of the individual courses. The improvements that have been made in this regard have tended to compound and exaggerate the duplication of content that exists between courses. The problem has not been so much that the same topics have been covered in both lower-level and upper-level courses.

There undoubtedly is need to deal with some of the same topics at both levels. The difficulty has been that the same topics have been covered in much the *same way* in the separate courses. Students have not had a chance in the upper-level courses to build upon what they learned earlier.

The lack of appropriate sequence of subject matter within the basic business group has kept many schools from offering anything except the general business course. Others offer only one of the upper-level courses. This situation has led to poor grade placement of some of the subject matter. Topics such as buying insurance and buying a home probably are more appropriate for eleventh- or twelfth-grade students, but they often are included in the general business course. The reason is very simple. The chances are not good that the general business students will have the opportunity to take an advanced course. Similarly, some topics are kept in the upper-level courses because there is no assurance that all these students have had the general business course.

DIFFERENCES OF OPINION ABOUT THE BEST APPROACH

The growth and quality of economic education probably have been affected somewhat by the fact that there have been differences of opinion about objectives and the means of achieving them. There was a time when economists believed that little, if any, economics should or *could* be taught to high school students. Those who conceded that it could be done usually favored the factual and theoretical approach used in the college courses in principles of economics. In more recent years this thinking has been modified considerably. Many economists now agree that the public schools can, indeed *must,* help youth understand those economic principles that will make them more effective citizens. The emphasis, however, is still on the broad social issues and upon the understandings necessary to make wise decisions as voters.

Business teachers, on the other hand, generally have taken a more pragmatic approach. They have been more inclined to emphasize principles of economics that the consumer needs when he acts independently as a wage earner, a buyer, an investor, or a borrower. Perhaps this approach has too often led to superficiality in the development of social economic understanding. In many cases it has led to the omission altogether of significant economic *principles.* This, of course, is what the economists feared. Some courses became an endless chain of "doing" this and that. There was little attempt to help students see relationships between any two of the activities he performed, let alone the relationship between his own activities and those of the larger society around him.

Two major weaknesses have resulted from these different approaches to economic education. The theoretical approach has failed to help students understand the relationship of economic principles to their daily lives. As a result, this kind of economics has been of little or no interest to high school students. The practical, or *consumer,* approach has failed to give students a depth of understanding. It has seldom gone beyond the viewpoint of the individual.

It would seem that there is a relatively simple cure for this weakness. What is needed is a compromise between these two approaches to economic education. There is no reason why the two objectives cannot be achieved at the same time. Indeed, the principles of economics that a person must understand to act intelligently as a voter frequently are the same principles he must understand to act intelligently as a buyer or a borrower. Fortunately, there are encouraging signs that this weakness is now being overcome.

WEAKNESSES IN THE GENERAL BUSINESS COURSE

Without question, the general business course has offered the best opportunity for business education to make a significant contribution to economic literacy. This is so partly because more students enroll in general business than in any other basic business course. Another reason is that this is the first course in the basic business group. Consequently, the designers of the course have had complete freedom in choosing its content. Any topic has been "open game" for general business, and history demonstrates that a wide assortment of topics have at various times been rounded up and thrown in. But the course has failed to live up to its full potential as an instrument for economic education. The reasons are many.

Purpose Has Not Been Clear

The purpose of the general business course has never been clear to many business teachers. One reason is that there has been an almost constant evolution of its purpose. The original purpose of the course was vocational, and it emphasized skills that would help potential dropouts prepare for junior clerical jobs. Later the purpose was said to be prevocational or exploratory, which meant that this course was supposed to give students a taste of what they could expect to find in other business courses in the high school. Still later general business was described as a personal-use business course and as a consumer course. While one school or one teacher was working on one of these purposes, a different school or a different teacher often was working on another. In other words, not all schools and all teachers were working on the same stage of the evolutionary cycle at the same time. This situation led to further confusion about the purpose of the course.

Fortunately, the past confusion about the purpose of general business has about vanished. There is now almost universal agreement that the course has a single over-all purpose—to aid in the development of economic understanding among *all* high school students. There will continue to be differences of opinion, of course, about what development of economic understanding includes. The search for a purpose worthy of the general education potential of the course appears to have ended, however. Students and teachers alike will undoubtedly welcome further refinement of this important objective.

Content Often Has Been Unrelated to Purpose

The most unbelievable thing about general business, and its greatest weakness of the past, is the fact that as its purposes have changed its content has remained remarkably the same. For the past twenty-five or thirty years practically nobody has even hinted that the course has a vocational aim. Yet, course outlines still contain such vocational units as writing business letters, filing business records, recordkeeping, and sending packages by mail. Although the exploratory aim was dropped long ago, some of the content still seems to emphasize remedial drill in penmanship, spelling, and arithmetic. Units on keeping financial records for organizations and clubs, using communication services, and using travel services, still hang on although the personal-use objective has largely disappeared. The "how to" approach of the consumer era still shows up in such topics as, how to write a check, how to transfer a check, how to make a telephone call, how to send a telegram, and the like. Luckily, the beginning of the end of this unfortunate state of affairs seems to be in sight as this yearbook is published.

Content Often Has Been Trivial

Not only is much of the content of general business unrelated to today's purpose, a surprising amount of it amazingly trivial. While the country's leading communications company advertises that "any six year old can dial a telephone," some general business teachers are still teaching the personal use of the telephone to students in the tenth grades. Other unimportant topics still being taught include: buying bus tickets, recognizing counterfeit money, planning an automobile trip, reserving Pullman accommodations, and the like. Most students learn much of this information as a matter of course long before they reach the ninth grade. Some of it they most likely will never need to know, and even if the occasion for its use ever does arise they probably will have forgotten the isolated bits of information.

Of course, there may be some instances in which a topic such as those mentioned here would have value for special groups. For example, students with severe mental, emotional, or social handicaps may need to be taught how to buy a bus ticket and how to find their way from one destination to another. There is still the question, however, whether general business is the best course in which to try to accomplish such an objective. This does not mean that enrollment in general business should be limited to students with average and above-average academic ability. Far from it. A good general business course has significant content for students with a wide range of abilities and interests. It is important to remember, though, that certain topics may be pertinent and significant at one point in history but trivial and unrelated to the needs of youth of another era.

Teachers Often Have Not Been Interested

As a rule, teachers have not volunteered to teach the general business course. They have been assigned. Many teachers have felt that they were not adequately prepared to teach the course. Some insisted that they had not had adequate preparation in subject matter to teach economic concepts, while others said they did not know *how* to teach a nonskill subject. Both groups have been right to some extent.

All too often in the past, teacher education programs have not included enough work in economics and related subjects. Apparently there still are a few programs that do not require the prospective business teacher to take even one course in principles of economics. Generally, however, business teachers have had better subject matter preparation for teaching economic understandings than they will admit. Certainly, they have had better preparation than teachers in any other field.

It is also true that undergraduate programs often have failed to give preservice teachers the help they need in how to teach the basic business subjects. Methods that are effective in teaching such skill subjects as shorthand and typewriting are not appropriate for general business. This weakness, too, is being overcome gradually as more colleges and universities offer special methods courses in the teaching of basic business subjects.

Preservice programs also have failed general business teachers in a much more important way than either of the two already mentioned. They have not provided the necessary *inspiration*. Most people need to feel that they are working for a *cause*, that there is a significant reason for being. More often than not, teacher education programs have failed to help the young teacher see the need for and the importance of the general business course. Even in cases where separate basic methods courses have been offered, they have concentrated too much on techniques and not enough on purpose and how to select content that is related to purpose.

WEAKNESSES IN THE UPPER-LEVEL BASIC BUSINESS COURSES

Most of the weaknesses that have been cited for general business apply also to the other basic business courses. This is especially true of the consumer economics course. It generally has placed too much emphasis on how to buy, how to manage money, how to use credit, how to save, and the like. The role of the consumer in relation to the entire economy has been largely neglected. There are some recent signs, however, that teachers are beginning to use this course to help students see interrelationships between personal and social economic concepts.

The regular economics course has been chiefly a junior version of the college course in principles of economics. Until very recently, few attempts were made to relate the course to personal problems of the students. Little has been done in the business law course that would qualify as economic education. It has given some attention to personal law problems, such as making contracts and handling negotiable instruments. On the other hand, it has done little to help students gain a better understanding of laws that affect the operation of the economy as a whole. The course in business principles and management usually has had a vocational emphasis in spite of the fact that it generally is listed with basic business subjects. Its aim has been to help the student learn how to organize and manage a business of his own. Any economic concepts developed in the process have been incidental.

NOT ENOUGH STUDENTS INVOLVED

Past efforts to develop economic literacy have not reached nearly as many students as they should have. Only a small percentage of high school students take a course designed primarily to develop better economic understanding. One reason is that too few such courses have been offered. Another reason is that no established curriculum group in the high school has made a determined effort to lay claim to this important task. Home economics teachers have tried to teach some consumer economics, but they have seldom gone beyond the personal-use, how-to-do-it phase. Social studies teachers have shown great reluctance to get involved. Business education has at least created an appropriate vehicle in the general business course and to a lesser extent the upper-level basic business courses.

There are several reasons why the general business course has not reached more students. First, its content simply has not been worthy enough to attract large numbers of students from outside the business department. This is especially true for the very able, college-bound students. Second, in spite of its fundamental nature, the course generally has not been required of all students enrolled in the business department. Third, the title of the course may have discouraged nonbusiness students from enrolling in it. The name suggests to some that the course is for business students only. There seems little reason why these three handicaps have to persist, however. This course can and probably should become the most powerful instrument in the high school for developing economic understanding among *all* students.

CONCLUSION

There are many signs that steps are being taken to overcome some of the weaknesses described in this chapter. Undoubtedly, as we correct certain defects others will develop as a result. This suggests that business education must continue to look for ways to improve its contribution to the economic education of all youth. Steady progress can be made only if all business teachers understand and are concerned about the problem.

Chapter 16

Projections for the Future

RAY G. PRICE, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

The guiding force of our basically free enterprise system is the sum total of the millions of individual economic decisions all of us make as consumers, workers, and voters. Wise decisions require a high degree of economic literacy or understanding. The development of economic understanding, however, is a large order. It cannot be accomplished with a single course any more than competence in language, mathematics, or science can be achieved in one course. Ideally, education for economic literacy should be a continuous process beginning in the lower grades and involving all areas of study in which economic topics are relevant.

This means that the development of economic understanding is not to be thought of as the exclusive responsibility of business education. But it also means that business education should be assuming a major share of the responsibility because, more than any other field, it deals with the very things economics is about. An economic system, remember, is simply an arrangement for satisfying human wants. In the United States, business produces ninety percent of the goods and services people buy to satisfy their wants. Business provides employment for about seven out of every eight workers. Other subjects in which economic topics may be taught often overlook the significant role of business in the economy.

The concern of this chapter is how business education might meet its responsibility for economic education better in the years ahead than it has in the past or is doing at present.

IMPROVEMENT MUST COME THROUGH THE BASIC BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Most business courses provide some opportunities to develop economic understanding. In typewriting and in shorthand, for example, economic principles can be introduced by way of copy or dictation materials. Through a study of bookkeeping students may learn about the role of profits or the circular flow of income. The development of economic understanding, however, is a secondary aim of these courses. Their primary aim is a vocational one—to help students acquire marketable skills.

This is in contrast to the basic business subjects which include general business, economic geography, business law, consumer problems or consumer economics, and economics. These are nonvocational. Their primary purpose is to provide the kind of basic knowledge about our business system that should be part of every student's general education. Opportunities to develop economic understanding through the basic business subjects are plentiful, but these opportunities have not been fully utilized. Any significant gain in the contribution of business education to economic education, therefore, will depend on improvements in the content and teaching of the basic business subjects.

BOTH PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ECONOMIC UNDERSTANDING WILL BE THE AIM

The campaign for economic education began in earnest with the establishment of the Joint Council on Economic Education in 1948. Then as now, the aim was to help the nation's youth become responsible and intelligent participants in our basically free and private enterprise system. No change in aim is expected in the foreseeable future. What can be expected—in fact is already visible—is greater accord over what is and is not economic education. For a long time there was a difference of opinion between teachers—business teachers in particular—and the professional economists on this point.

The economists made no distinction between economic education and the social science of economics. To them economic understanding meant an understanding of those economic principles which would enable citizens to make wise decisions as voters. It did not include the knowledge and skills individuals needed to be effective in making and spending their incomes. In other words, personal or consumer economics was not economic education.

The secondary school teachers who were responsible for economic education did not deny the importance of and need for social economic understanding. Neither did they agree that it should be the sole aim of economic education. As they pointed out, individuals come into contact with the economic world not only as citizen-voters, but also as wage earners, savers, investors, producers, and consumers. Economic understanding certainly should include competence in these capacities. In fact, some teachers doubted whether the development of social economic understanding was possible at the secondary level, since earlier experiences with such courses had proved that traditional economics was of little interest to high school students.

To what extent this conflict has hampered the growth of sound programs of economic education cannot be ascertained. Fortunately, it is being resolved as teachers and economists meet and exchange ideas in economic education workshops, in-service courses, and institutes where teachers learn what economics is all about and devise ways to convey this knowledge to their pupils.

From these exchanges has come a mutual appreciation of the fact that the best way to make economic principles meaningful is to relate them to the personal affairs and experiences of students or their families. Although it might be an exaggeration to say that a large number of economists are now convinced that personal or consumer economics has intrinsic value, many of them at least recognize its value as a motivational technique. As one of them has said, "The economic problems that, on the whole, are simplest to explain are those directly related to the personal affairs and experiences of the learners. . . . It is quite remarkable how many of the abstractions of economics have their counterpart in the affairs of the family or the corner grocer. . . . The hardest economic ideas to comprehend are those which cannot accurately be compared to personal experience."[1] At the same time teachers are beginning to see that courses which do not go beyond the development of personal economic competence do not go far enough, and that social economic concepts can be taught to students of any age when presented in terms they understand.

In time the either/or controversy over the aims of economic education will grow more and more faint. One evidence of this is the following quotation taken from a pamphlet titled *Economics and the Consumer* published in 1966 by the Joint Council on Economic Education. ". . . if the schools and colleges are to meet their responsibility in a free society they must develop the competence of the individual in economic decision making both when making decisions affecting him directly as well as when his decisions affect and are affected by public policy." [2]

---

[1] Wallich, Henry C. "Economics Needs More Audience Appeal." *Challenge Magazine*. March 1962.

SIGNS POINT TO IMPROVED CONTENT IN BASIC BUSINESS

As usually happens, progress in one direction is leading to progress in another. Agreement over the aims of economic education, together with a growing awareness of the possibilities for developing economic understanding through the basic business courses at the secondary level, is beginning to be reflected in the content of these courses. Following is a brief summary of noticeable changes. If they portend the future, business education may yet become a potent force in the over-all program of economic education.

The straight economics course offered in grade 12, which at one time had all but disappeared from the secondary school curriculum, is now making a comeback—but with a difference. What was taught in the 1920's was a tediously factual, watered-down version of the collegiate principles course. This is characteristic of present-day courses to a much lesser extent. Instead the trend is unmistakably toward a consideration of broad social issues. To make the content meaningful the issues are related to personal and community problems. The goal is to help the student develop "a way of thinking" about economic problems that will carry over to his decision making as a participant in our free enterprise economy.

The trend in consumer courses, which may be offered in either grade 11 or 12, is also toward interrelating personal and social economic concepts, but in somewhat reverse fashion. As taught in the business curriculum, at least, consumer education is becoming less a study of buying techniques and more a study of the role of the consumer in relation to the whole economy. Although the dollar-and-cents concern of individuals may provide the starting point, it no longer accounts for the entire content as once was the case even in courses called "consumer economics."

---

[2] *Economics and the Consumer*. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1966.

As one example, the study of credit in the future will likely include, in addition to an explanation of the proper use of the different kinds of credit, an explanation of the role of credit; the relationship between credit and savings; and how an increase or decrease in the use of credit affects total spending. To an ever-increasing extent, students who complete consumer courses will understand the operation of broad economic forces, particularly those affecting levels of income, employment, and prices.

The trend toward interrelating social and personal economic problems in both straight economics and consumer economics is cited by some as evidence that these two courses will eventually be merged into one. It would be presumptuous to say that this will never happen; but chances are it will not happen soon. What is more probable for the near future is that straight economics courses in the twelfth grade will become increasingly sophisticated as students' earlier exposure to economics warrants moving in that direction.

Of all the courses in the basic business curriculum, business law has changed the least as a result of efforts to integrate economic understandings with existing courses. Today the course is little different than it was when first introduced into the secondary schools. Its contribution to economic understanding lies now, as it did then, almost entirely in its coverage of personal law problems such as those involving contracts, negotiable instruments, and wills. There is much more in business law which is not economic education and which, in addition, has been criticized as being too technical for secondary school students.

It has been suggested that such content be replaced with a study of laws affecting the operation of the economy as a whole. Examples are antitrust legislation, fair-trade laws, right-to-work laws, and other types of labor legislation. Such a move would certainly increase greatly the contribution of the law course to economic education; but there is little evidence at present that the suggestion will be acted upon soon. There is a move in this direction, however, at the collegiate level which may in time, by a "trickle-down" process, bring about a change at the secondary level. That is to say, as more and more teachers have the broader type of law course as part of their pre-service preparation, we may begin to see signficant changes in the content of the secondary course.

GENERAL BUSINESS WILL BE UPGRADED

The most promising of all changes are the ones beginning to show up in the general business course where improvements in content are most desperately needed. The claim that general business should be part of the general education program of all students because of its contribution to economic education has not been convincing. The content of the course simply has not justified the claim. Among the reasons *why* are: it is too often vocationally slanted; it is superficial; it is too elementary; it is lacking in economic emphasis. To quote one critic, "Much of the information in the present . . . course is better suited to do-it-yourself learning than to book learning."[3] These faults have even prompted some schools to drop general business from the curriculum.

This is regrettable because, of all the courses offered in grades 9 and 10, general business could do the most to develop economic understanding. Certainly, it can make a greater contribution to economic education than any of the other basic business subjects, if only because general business accounts for most of the enrollments in basic business. Thus it is encouraging to note that improvements are being made in the content of the course.

What these improvements promise is a course with depth rather than breadth. In other words, it will include fewer topics but develop them well enough to have a lasting impact on the learner. It is the attempt to cover too wide a range of topics that has made general business superficial because the treatment of each is limited to a description of necessity and most of what is learned is quickly forgotten. Greater selectivity in the choice of content will make possible a more analytical treatment of each topic. Students will be able to see the interrelationships of the various topics or, putting it another way, they will see the relationship of the parts to the whole. This is essential if the content is to be meaningful to students. Any only if it seems meaningful will they want to learn it. More time spent on each topic will provide opportunities for students to apply what they learn. In this way learning will be reinforced.

To achieve depth in general business, some topics that have long been a part of the course will have to be left out. Hopefully what is omitted will be the kind of content responsible for most of the present criticism of the course—topics of a vocational nature, like filing and recordkeeping, which are taught in courses designed for that purpose; and trivial information, like how to use the telephone, how to make travel plans, and how to reserve Pullman accomodations, which students may learn as a matter of course or may never need to know. The trend toward depth in general business will result in a course that is upgraded—not in the sense that it will be more difficult but that it will be more challenging. Many things once taught at the secondary level are now taught at the elementary level. In addition, students today have a wider range of experience than their counterparts of yesterday, partly because of exposure to such mass media as radio, television, and movies and partly because travel has become commonplace.

---

[3] Senesh, Lawrence. "Outcomes in Developing Economic Literacy on the Junior High School Level." *New Perspectives in Education for Business.* National Business Education Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1963. Chapter 4, pp. 104-38.

General business is and probably will continue to be a personal approach to economic understanding, emphasizing the individual's relationships with business as a consumer, worker, and voter. In the move toward depth and upgrading, however, some of the personal emphasis may diminish. The subject of transportation, for example, will not be taught from the standpoint of the consumer planning a trip or shipping goods, but from the standpoint of its relationship to the nation's economic growth. Likewise, the subject of social security will not be considered only from the standpoint of the worker who pays the tax and receives the benefits, but also from the standpoint of how social security serves to stabilize the economy.

Whatever else might be said of general business in the future, one thing is certain. If the potentialities of the course are ever to be fully realized, its content must be modified to make true the claim that it is economic education, that it is general education, and that it is for all students.

BETTER ARTICULATION OF BASIC BUSINESS CURRICULUM NEEDED

The basic business subjects are commonly referred to as a sequence which suggests a related series providing for advancement of the learner. In other words, students who take the sequence should expect to progress to a higher level of learning as they complete one course and move on to the next. However what students who actually take a second basic business course are likely to get is the first course warmed over and over again. This is especially true when a course in consumer problems or consumer economics is taken following a general business course. It is because of the tremendous amount of overlapping and duplication in the basic business curriculum that many schools offer no advanced courses. And in spite of improvements being made in individual courses at the present time, there are as yet no signs of a better sequential development within the basic business curriculum. If anything the trend appears to be toward more, rather than less, duplication of content. This trend must be reversed if the basic business subjects are to make the contribution to economic education that they could make.

To counteract any misconception that might arise at this point, it should be emphasized that the plea here is not for altogether different subject matter in each of the separate courses, but that the treatment of the subject matter at each level be in keeping with the needs, interests, maturity, and experiences of the student. For example some of the topics dealt with in general business, the first course of the basic business sequence, may also be dealt with in courses in the eleventh or twelfth grades. To be challenging to students at the upper levels, however, the earlier learnings will have to be enlarged. After all, the word development implies a growth or building process. If the aim of the basic business sequence is to develop economic understanding, then the advanced courses should build on the basic concepts introduced in general business.

Building a progressive continuity into the basic business curriculum would be easier if the several advanced courses were redesigned into one, as has been suggested from time to time. Such a move has numerous advantages. Two obvious ones are that it would eliminate both duplication and content of doubtful value. In addition, it might prompt more schools to offer an advanced course, particularly now when the number that could offer such a course is increasing as the result of school consolidation.

A well-defined, two-course sequence would also make possible a better grade placement of the material to be covered, since there would be a greater likelihood that students would take both courses. At present there is reason to question the suitability of some of the topics covered in general business. Wouldn't the subject of investing in a home, for example, be more appropriate for eleventh or twelfth graders? What about planning a life insurance program? And even check writing and reconciling bank statements would be better studied close to the time of actual use. The main reason topics more appropriate to advanced courses are taught in general business is because too few schools offer advanced basic business.

Certainly better sequential development of the basic business curriculum is needed if these subjects are ever to attract college-bound students. The urgency of this goal is aptly expressed by one writer in the following way: ". . . in no other college program have students had less orientation to the subject matter in high school than those who take business and economics in college." [4]

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS WILL INCLUDE BOTH CONTENT AND METHODS

One of the persistent problems in developing effective programs of economic education has been inadequate teacher preparation. Deficiencies in background have even kept business teachers from becoming involved in economic education, although there is evidence to support the fact that as a group business teachers are better qualified to handle economic topics than teachers in any other field. At least their preservice preparation, as a rule, has included more credit hours in economics and related subjects than has the preparation of teachers in other fields. What business teachers have been missing in their preservice preparation is not so much content courses in economics but strong basic business methods courses. Thus positive signs indicating that the preparation of business teachers in the future will include more in the way of both content and methods are a cause for optimism.

First, as a result of the growing concern over the lack of economic understanding in this country, there is pressure to have economics courses included in the curriculum for the preparation of all teachers. Second, institutions preparing business teachers are increasing the number of credit hours in economics required for a degree. Third, an increasing number of states include economics as one of the requirements for certification of business teachers; and states that have required economics for certification in the past are increasing the number of credit hours required. Fourth, teachers themselves are demonstrating a desire to improve their ability in the area of economic education with respect to both content and method, as witnessed by the increasing number participating in intensive workshops throughout the country.

---

[4] Daughtrey, Anne S. *Methods of Basic Business and Economic Education.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1965.

Since 1948, the Joint Council on Economic Education or one of its affiliates has conducted 732 summer economic education institutes and workshops in cooperation with colleges and universities. Seventy-three of these workshops, or almost 10 percent of the total, were held during the summer of 1967. True, the participants were not all business teachers; but judging from past records a significant number of them were. Furthermore the 1967 workshop figure does not include economic education workshops and institutes operated independently by colleges and universities. Neither does it include personal finance workshops or basic business workshops which also provide opportunities for teachers to brush up on what to teach and how to teach it.

Also increasing are separate basic business methods courses at the undergraduate level. And here again the trend toward school consolidation may be partly responsible. The long-time practice of teaching basic business methods in combination with methods of teaching the skill subjects was often worse than no preparation at all, since effective teaching of basic business demands methods different from those used in the skill subjects. One reason for the practice, of course, was that for many years small schools far outnumbered large ones. With few exceptions the typical teacher graduate started his career in a small school where in many instances he was expected to teach all business subjects offered but where, in just as many instances, no basic business course was offered. His preservice preparation, therefore, had to be comprehensive, at least in the skill areas. Only after he acquired sufficient experience to move to a suburban or big city school was he likely to have the responsibility for a basic business course—and then only until the responsibility could be shifted to the next new teacher who joined the faculty. As mentioned earlier, however, with the move toward school consolidation the possibilities of basic business being part of the business curriculum are increasing. Hence, the concern over the need for better preparation in this area.

Increasing school size is also affecting the trend toward specialization among business teachers. This is not to say that specialization is new, but it became the right of business teachers only after they had worked their way up to a big city school. Among those preparing to be business teachers, specialization began not so very many years ago with the non-shorthand major. As more and more schools are able to accommodate subject specialists, the demand for them is growing. Today the prospective business teacher may major in bookkeeping and data processing, in stenography, in clerical procedures, or in basic business and economics. This could do more than any other one thing to improve basic business since it may be true, as sometimes suspected, that the basic business subjects require a different breed of teacher than the skill subjects.

THE RIGHT MEDIA-METHOD MIX WILL ASSURE SUCCESS

What has been said so far seems clearly to indicate that teaching of the basic business subjects will improve. Assuming content in keeping with the aim, this will increase the contribution of these subjects to economic education. Teachers are beginning to see that understanding is not developed by learning facts but that it is the ability to see the relationship between the facts and to tie them together. The teacher's job is to devise ways for students to discover how the facts learned are related. This is where selectivity and arrangement of content become important agents. They enable the teacher to involve students in the learning process with meaningful results. One thing we can expect to see more of in the future, therefore, is student-centered classrooms.

To an increasing extent students will work together as members of committees or learning teams. Group discussion will be encouraged. Role-playing will be used more than it is now as a means of helping students to find answers for themselves. Role-playing has been found particularly effective with low-ability or disinterested learners since it affords them an opportunity to be someone other than themselves. Descriptions of these and other techniques suited to basic business courses can be found in professional journals, in methods textbooks, and in the teachers manuals written for use with basic business texts. There seems little justification for repeating them here.

To maximize the transferability of what is learned, ideas should be presented in as many ways as possible. Teachers will not rely on a textbook as the only teaching tool. To the extent that good films and filmstrips are produced, teachers will use them. Growing in popularity as a teaching medium is the film clip or single-concept film, so-called because its purpose is to develop just one idea. Schools may buy them or teachers can make them. They may be kept in the cartridge for instant use on special study-type projectors for purposes of self-instruction. One of the most versatile of the teaching media is transparencies, the use of which is rapidly expanding. Teachers will be making their own television tapes for classroom use. Programed learning will undoubtedly figure much more prominently in the future of economic education than it has in the past.

Two practices now in the experimental stage that promise more efficient learning are team teaching and flexible scheduling. Team teaching makes use of the varied but complementary talents of a group of teachers who cooperate in planning the instruction, the learning activities, and other aspects of the course. Flexible scheduling is neither an instructional medium nor a method, but it does seem to provide one of the best means for taking care of individual differences. And as enrollments in the basic business subjects increase, the problem of challenging able students without neglecting the less able will also increase.

THE SUPPORT OF ALL BUSINESS TEACHERS WILL BE NEEDED

The question is not whether economic education has a future, but whether business education will have a part in that future. Enthusiasm for and support of the basic business subjects varies inversely with the current fortunes of the vocational business program. During the depression of the 1930's, for example, when the vocational business subjects lost some of their appeal because of a decrease in job opportunities, the emphasis in business education shifted to the basic business subjects. In fact, the depression years marked the real beginning of consumer education.

Again in the years following the launching of Sputnik I, the emphasis in education shifted to the wholly academic program. Business teachers sought to call the attention of school administrators to the fact that business education was more than typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping —that it also included courses which ought to be considered essential to the general education of *all* students. They did it by publishing and distributing a leaflet entitled "This We Believe About Business Education in the High School," in which the purposes of business education are described as follows: "Business education is concerned with two major aspects of the education of youth: (a.) The knowledge, attitudes, and nonvocational skills needed by all persons to be effective in their personal economics and in their understanding of our economic system. (b.) The vocational knowledge and skills needed for initial employment and for advancement in a business career."

With passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the future of the vocational business subjects again seems assured. And once more there is a "Who needs it?" attitude toward basic business among the tongue-in-cheek believers. This raises the question—just what is a business education? Is it the ability to do a particular kind of work and nothing more? Workers who do not understand their work environment are robots. This does not mean that every business teacher has an obligation to teach basic business courses. What it does mean is that everyone who calls himself a "business teacher" has an obligation to support and work for the improvement of all aspects of business education. The future contribution of business education to economic education will depend on the extent to which this obligation is assumed.

SELECTED REFERENCES

DOUGHTERY, A. S. *Methods of Basic Business and Economic Education.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1965.

Economic Education in the Schools. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1961.

Economics and the Consumer. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1966.

Education for Economic Competence. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1960.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. *"Economic Understanding—Continuing Quest in Secondary Schools." NASSP Bulletin,* November 1965.

FRANKEL, M. L. *Economic Education.* New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1965.

National Business Education Association. *New Perspectives in Education for Business.* First Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1963.

A Teachers Guide to Economics in the Business Education Curriculum. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1963.

6. COOPERATIVE PART-TIME PROGRAMS

Chapter 17

Strengths of the Past and Present

KENNETH ZIMMER, California State College at Los Angeles, Los Angeles

Although some persons do not make much distinction between cooperative education and work-experience education, the participants at the National Seminar on Cooperative Education held in 1966 at the Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, agreed upon the following differentiation:

> Work-experience education has a number of diffuse, general objectives. For example, work experience has been introduced in a variety of worthwhile educational programs conducted for various purposes and in different forms. There programs would be individually defined according to their nature, purpose, procedures, and substance and range from efforts to propose new approaches to curriculums.
>
> The cooperative program, which also contains the element of work experience, is specifically defined. It is a program of vocational education developed jointly by the school and business or industry in which job skills and job adjustment are secured through an organized sequence of job experiences in paid part-time employment and through classroom experiences in related instruction.
>
> Uniquely, cooperative education helps the student to:
>
> 1. Select an appropriate field of work or an occupation
> 2. Learn skills of an occupation under actual conditions of employment and production
> 3. Gain technical and related information which will enable the learner to

engage in the work of the chosen occupation intelligently, safely, and confidently

4. Make adjustment to the real employment setting including responsibilities, relations with other workers, and acceptance of supervision
5. Make optimal application of school learning to a vocation and of job learning to school work
6. Learn to assume adult responsibilities in work, in relation to peers, and in his community.[1]

COOPERATIVE PART-TIME PROGRAMS IN OPERATION

Cooperative part-time programs in business education provide business students the experiences that cannot be so effectively handled in the classroom alone. In schools where such programs are in operation, business students who are preparing for office and distributive occupations spend part of each day in their last semester or semesters in the classroom and part of each day on the job in an office or a retail establishment. The added ingredient that distinguishes this experience from "just working" is found in the role played by the school personnel labeled "coordinator" or "teacher-coordinator" or "supervisor." The student spends a minimum of one hour a day of related instruction at the school and at least 15 hours a week on the job. In some programs, the student spends a block of time on the job for a full day. However, because of the difficulty of administering such a program from the standpoint of scheduling classes, this latter arrangement is not typical and is usually found only in connection with distributive programs where the services of student workers are greatly needed by stores in such peak periods as the Christmas season.

Although the student works under the supervision of a currently employed office or retail employee, the teacher is available for assistance, guidance, and instruction as needed. Students participating in a cooperative program are usually paid at the same rate as beginning employees in the same position and also receive school credit for the work experience.

Many cooperative part-time programs receive reimbursement from state and federal vocational funds. It might be stated that the growth of such programs may well be attributed to this state or federal aid because such programs would be too expensive for many school districts to operate without some financial assistance.

---

[1] *Guidelines for Cooperative Education and Selected Materials.* Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, p. 4.

Some schools operate a work-experience program within the school itself. Such programs may overcome some of the disadvantages and costs necessary in operating a cooperative program with business, but some educators would criticize the value of such intra-school experiences as compared with the experience of working in a business situation. Callahan indicates the following objectives for an in-school work experience education program for office education students:

1. To provide practical experience with duties and standards of office occupations within the school
2. To master office skills and understandings not taught or learned in other business courses
3. To integrate previously learned skills and understandings with newly acquired ones
4. To develop character traits important to job success; i.e., trustworthiness, courtesy, integrity, industry, cheerfulness, willingness and ability to follow directions accurately and completely.[2]

Mason states these objectives for initiating a cooperative program:

1. To aid student-learners in developing office skills and job intelligence applicable to all office occupations through correlated classroom instruction and on-the-job training
2. To develop the specialized office skills and knowledges needed by student-learners required for successful employment in the business organizations where they are placed
3. To provide supervised step-by-step laboratory work in the form of a real job situation in the local business community
4. To provide preparation that will enable graduates to grow and progress in the office occupation
5. To contribute to the general education objectives of the school.[3]

NATIONAL SEMINAR ON COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

At a national seminar on cooperative education held at the Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, August

---

[2] Callahan, Lois. *In-School Work Experience for Office Occupations,* California State Department of Education, Bureau of Business Education, p.1.

[3] Mason, Ralph E. *National Business Education Yearbook, No. 5,* 1967, p. 294.

1-5, 1966, an impressive list of advantages of the cooperative plan to the student, the school, the employer, and the community was developed.

The Student

1. Provides a realistic learning setting in which the student may discover his true interests and abilities.
2. Develops a good understanding of employment opportunities and responsibilities through direct on-the-job experience.
3. Exposes students to basic information regarding business, industry, and off-farm agriculture needed for intelligent life choices.
4. Develops work habits and attitudes necessary for individual maturity and job competence.
5. Provides a laboratory for developing marketable skills.
6. Gives meaning and purpose to the theoretical and practice assignments presented in the school situation.
7. Provides first-hand experience with other employees which leads to a better understanding of the human factors in business and industry.
8. Provides financial rewards while learning employment skills and understanding.
9. Provides an opportunity to participate in and profit by two types of learning environment—school life and employment.
10. Provides an effective test of aptitude for chosen field of work.

The School

1. Enlarges the learning facilities available for students enrolled without a major expenditure for shop and laboratory equipment.
2. Brings business, industry, agriculture, and the school together in a training effort to develop a strong vocational program.
3. Brings to the school at a low per-capita cost a wealth of social and technical information which may be used as the basis for effective instruction for the varied needs of the students.
4. Gives the school an effective means of evaluating its over-all instructional program.
5. Increases the holding power of the school by helping students clarify career goals and providing a practical means of reaching them.

The Employer

1. The employer becomes a partner in selecting, instructing and training young workers in the skills and understanding needed for effective job performance.
2. The employer has the assistance of the school in instructing and counseling the cooperative student during the transition and adjustment period from school to the job.
3. As follow-up studies show, employers retain a large percent of cooperative students after graduation in positions of real responsibility and leadership.
4. Employers participate in keeping in-school and on-the-job instruction consistent with current practice in business, industry, and agriculture.
5. Employers have a source of new workers who are receptive to instruction.
6. Employers have the advantage of hiring workers with a basic understanding of the technology of the trade, including advanced mathematics and applied science which give the worker the "know-why" as as well as the "know-how."
7. Employers are supplied with selected and motivated workers who have chosen a career in keeping with their interests and aptitudes.
8. Employers are often relieved of some of their training problems.
9. Employers are provided an opportunity to render an important public service.

The Community

1. Provides an effective means of developing young people for productive citizenship in the community.
2. Increases the economic health of the community as companies are able to meet their needs for skilled workers.
3. Provides a method of introducing high school students to the local employment opportunties.
4. Provides an opportunity to develop a unified community training program.
5. Provides specilized training in a variety of occupations at a reasonable cost to the community.
6. Promotes closer cooperation and understanding between the community and its schools.

7. Encourages students to remain in the home community after graduation and promotes a more stable work force.[4]

CALIFORNIA BUSINESS EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In the annual descriptive report of California Business Education Programs for 1965-66 prepared by R. C. Wagenen, chief, Bureau of Business Education of the California State Department of Education, two schools reported specific advantages of cooperative programs for their students. The El Monte Unified School District organized its work-experience program for potential dropouts. They reported that:

1. There was a significant change in attitude of students toward the school program.
2. There was an increased interest by students to remain in school to gain skills required on the job.

A VEA project, 'Work Experience for Vocational Business and Distributive Occupations,' had the following outcomes as reported by Opportunity High School:

1. Student workers who have diligently pursued their VEA jobs have performed better as classroom students, as indicated by their instructors.
2. Stability of citizenship and improvement of work attitudes has been shown by most student workers.
3. Several students appear to have made a vocational choice which they may pursue as their life's work.
4. The counseling each student worker has received from his employer and work coordinator appears to have helped stabilize school, job, and community attitudes.[5]

LITERATURE IN THE FIELD

The experiences of those who have participated in the organization and administration of cooperative part-time programs appear in many of the business education journals and yearbooks. For the benefit of the readers of this *National Business Education Yearbook,* and with the assistance of *Business Education Index* for the years 1962-1966, the contributor has compiled a list of the writings in this field. These articles serve as an historical record.

---

[4] *Guidelines for Cooperative Education and Selected Materials.* Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, 1967, pp. 8-9.

[5] *Annual Descriptive Report of California Business Education Programs,* 1965-66, Sacramento: State Department of Education, p. 7.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Atwood, Ellen. "On-the-job Training." *Today's Secretary* 68: 31, 79; September 1965.

Baldwin, Leland P. "Sacramento Program Combines Business and Home Economics; Preparation for Jobs in Merchandising." *California Education* 1: 17-18; May 1964.

Berlow, Agnes P. "In-Service Training at Briarcliff College." *Journal of Business Education* 40: 159-60; January 1965.

Bicanich, William F. "Distributive Education Students' Reactions to the Cooperative Part-time Distributive Education Programs in Minnesota." Master's thesis. University of Minnesota, 1964.

Bikkie, James A. "Better Instructions on the Job." *Business Education Forum* 17: 14-15; April 1963.

Buckowski, Wanda L. "A Study of Cooperative Office Work-experience Programs in the State of Connecticut with Implications for Business Education at the Rocky Hill High School." *National Business Education Quarterly* 33: 13; October 1964.

Callahan, Lois. "In-school Work Experience for Office Occupations, An Operational Handbook." Division of Vocational Education, California State Department of Education, Bureau of Business Education.

Corbman, Bernard P., and Hirshfield, Marvin. "A Successful Cooperative Work Experience Program." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 62-64; November 1965.

Dabkowski, Elaine. "Business Teacher Work Experience." *Balance Sheet* 46: 96; October 1964.

Dittman, Nancy A. "Spend This Summer in an Office." *Journal of Business Education* 39: 350; May 1964.

Drexler, Violet. "Fundable Job Opportunities in College Business Departments." *Business Education World* 46: 26-27, 37; April 1966.

Farnell, Vernon E. "The Community College and Cooperative Office Practice." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 333-34; May 1966.

Farrell, Gertrude M. "Can't Have a Work Experience Program? Try a Model Office Instead." *Business Education World* 45: 22-23; September 1964.

Fitzpatrick, Frank B. "A Proposed Cooperative Program in Distributive Education at Niles Township High School West in Illinois." Master's thesis. University of Wisconsin, 1963.

Flis, James R. "Suggested Procedures for Initiating Secondary School Cooperative Part-time Programs." Master's thesis. University of Minnesota, 1962.

Foulk, Julia A. "Determining the Attitudes of Utah Business Education Teachers toward Cooperative Office Education Classes for High School Students." *National Business Education Quarterly* 35: 23-24; October 1966.

Gauthier, Mary. "Job Analysis and Related Instruction for Educational Secretaries in Cooperative Part-time Work Experience Programs." Master's thesis. State College of Iowa, 1962.

Graver, Virginia R., "To Work or Not to Work." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 306; April 1966.

Greenwood, Virginia, "We Train for Experience and Responsibility." *Balance Sheet* 47: 55-57, 96; October 1965.

Gute, Jean. "Cooperative Work Experience in the Small High School," *California Business Education Association Bulletin* 22: 1, 3; October 1964.

Hackett, Beverly. "Let the Employer Be a Teaching Colleague." *Balance Sheet* 45: 298-99; March 1964.

———. "A Survey of Selected Industries to Determine the Feasibility of a Cooperative Work-experience Program for the Potential Dropout in Cook County School District 212." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 21-22; October 1965.

Haines, Peter G., and Coleman, Brendan G. "How High School Cooperative Trainees Fare in the Labor Market." *National Business Education Quarterly* 33: 23-24; October 1964.

Hermanstorfer, Judith. "A Survey of Opinions of Selected Iowa Public School Superintendents Relative to the Cooperative Work Experience Programs." Master's thesis. State College of Iowa, 1962.

———. "A Comparative Analysis of Surveys Taken in Iowa Public Schools in 1952 and 1962 Relative to the Status and Future of Cooperative Work-Experience Programs in Business Occupations." Master's thesis. State College of Iowa, 1963.

Huffman, Harry, coordinator. "Guidelines for Cooperative Education and Selected Materials from the National Seminar Held August 1-5, 1966." Columbus: Center for Vocational and Technical Education, Ohio State University, 1967.

Jantze, Margaret L. "The Work Experience Program in Office Occupations in Selected Institutions of Higher Education." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 296; April 1966.

Kappel, David J. "In-school Cooperative Secretarial Training," *High Points* 46: 46-48; January 1964.

Krawtiz, Myron J. "What Can We Do for Those Kids Who Just Aren't Interested in School?" *Business Education World* 46: 19, 32; November 1965.

Limper, Bernadine. "In-school Secretarial Work Experience." *National Business Education Quarterly* 35: 37; October 1966.

Logan, William B. "Good Co-Worker Relations on the Job." *Business Education Forum* 17: 15-16, 24; April 1963.

Madden, Mary J. "A Comparative Study of Graduates of the Cooperative Office Education Stenographic Curriculum with Graduates of the Regular Stenographic Curriculum from Francis T. Nicholls High School, New Orleans, Louisiana, for the Years 1960-1963 Inclusive." Master's thesis. Catholic University, 1964.

Marks, Mary V. "Improving Occupational Experiences Through Coordinated Classroom Experiences." *Business Education Forum* 17: 5-7; April 1963.

Martin, Charles W. "A Study of the Cooperative Work Experience Program in New Jersey." *Journal of Business Education* 38: 294-95; April 1963.

Mason, Ralph E., and Haines, Peter G. *Cooperative Occupational Education and Work Experience in the Curriculum.* Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, 1965.

McClanahan, Donald E. "The Place of Work Experience Programs in Business Education." Master's thesis. Arizona State University, 1963.

Meyer, Warren G. "Improving Occupational Experience." *Business Education Forum* 17: 3, 11; April 1963.

Meyer, Warren G., and Levendowski, J. C. "Enlisting Counselor Support." *Business Education Forum* 17: 9-11; April 1963.

Mills, Chester O. "Academic Status of High School Distributive Education Cooperative Students." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 29; October 1965.

Neel, W. C. "Guide Lines for a Work-Experience Program." *Balance Sheet* 48: 104-106, 144; November 1966.

Nesson, Jack. "Boston Opens the Door for Business School Graduates." *Balance Sheet* 46: 151, 187; December 1964.

Painter, Robert. "A Slide Sound Presentation for Promoting Cooperative DE." *American Vocational Journal* 41: 35-37; April 1966.

Peters, Sid R., and Harrison, William J. "Work-Study Program Cooperates with Industry." *Balance Sheet* 45: 352-54; April 1964.

Petersen, Allan L. "A New Twist in Cooperative Office Training." *Balance Sheet* 44: 229; January 1963.

Raines, Pearl L. "Standards for Selecting Work Stations for Cooperative Part-time Students." *Business Education Forum* 18: 34-36; May 1964.

Ray, J. A. "Study Guides for Agri-Business Classes." *Agricultural Education Magazine* 38: 187; February 1966.

Robertson, Leonard. "An Exploratory Study of the Effects of the Cooperative Education Program in Beginning Occupations on Selected Employment Factors." *Journal of Business Education* 42: 121; December 1966.

Roderick, Wanda W. "The Nature, Extent, and Values of Non-teaching Work Experiences of Business Teachers." Master's thesis. Illinois State Normal University, 1963.

Rowe, Kenneth L. "Making the Trainee More Responsible for His Training." *Business Education Forum* 17: 12-13; April 1963.

Sheerer, Irene. "Handling Secretarial and Duplicating Work for Other School Departments." *Ohio Business Teacher* 24: 56-58; 1964.

Shotwell, H. D. "Practical Experience is Valuable to the Business Education Teacher," *Business Education Newsletter* 10: 3; February 1963.

Shupe, Richard J. "A Question of Values: "How High School Teachers View Cooperative Education." Master's thesis. Michigan State University, 1962.

Sister M. Antonius. "A Sister Looks at Business Inside Out." *Catholic Business Education Review* 15: 46-49; Winter 1964.

Smith, Sofrona L. "On-campus Jobs Offer Advantages for College Secretarial Students." *Business Education World* 43: 22-43; May 1963.

Sparks, Mavis C. "Office Services Clubs Provide Work Experience without Fuss." *Business Education World* 45: 2-3; January 1965.

———. "At-home Typing Jobs." *Business Teacher* 44: 36; November-December 1966.

Strand, Ronald. "Enlisting the Cooperation of Fellow Faculty Members." *Business Education Forum* 17: 7-9; April 1963.

Taylor, Richard, and Fiebig, James. "Practical Experience Creates a Desire to Learn." *Business Education Observer* 35: 16-17; Spring 1964.

Tedder, Herbert H. "Cooperation Not Co-existence." *Balance Sheet* 47: 253-54; February 1966.

Thomas, Lowell G. "Service is Our Business—Midland's 25 Years in Cooperative Education." *Journal of Business Education* 41: 153-54; January 1966.

Thorne, Marian H. "Maximum Benefits from the Cooperative Work Experience Program." *Journal of Business Education* 39: 327-29; May 1964.

Travis, Dorothy L., and Missling, Lorraine, editors. *Selected Readings in Business and Office Occupations.* National Business Education Yearbook No. 5. Washington, D. C.: National Business Education Association, 1967.

Van Wagenen, R. C. *Annual Descriptive Report of California Business Education Programs 1965-66.* Sacramento: California. State Department of Education.

White, Gladys M. "A Study to Determine the Feasibility of an Office Cooperative Work Experience Program in the Henderson Attendance Area of the Clark County School District, Las Vegas, Nevada." *National Business Education Quarterly* 33: 69; October 1964.

Wight, Elizabeth A. "A Two-week Look at Business." *Business Education World* 47: 26, 35; November 1966.

Zancanella, James A. "An Exploratory Study of the Effect of the Secondary School Cooperative Part-time Training Program in the Distributive Occupations on Selected Employment Factors." *Journal of Business Education* 42: 74; November 1966.

Chapter 18

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

MARGUERITE CRUMLEY, Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond

When a state supervisor wants a solution to a problem, he generally consults the most experienced and professional teachers he knows. In preparing to write this chapter this same technique was followed. From two to four coordinators of cooperative education programs in office and distributive education from forty-six states were canvassed. In addition, to check points of view from different viewing positions, business and office education and distributive education supervisors from the major cities were contacted as well as all the states supervisors of business and office education and a selected group of state supervisors of distributive education. Persons with from one to forty years of experience in cooperative education sent thoughtful statements. The response from all these persons was phenomenal. No canvass of opinion could have received a larger return. It is hoped that this chapter accurately presents the viewpoints of all these fine people.

In looking at the whole picture—at all of the comments from all these people, at all the past and present weaknesses listed—one is immediately struck with the unanimity of thought coming from such a wide range of geographical areas and from the varied backgrounds of experience. There seems to be little difference between the past and present weaknesses as expressed by these people. Almost all indicated that the weaknesses or problems of the past had carried over to some extent into the present. Where some past weaknesses have been overcome in some localities, they still exist in others. Even the most experienced coordinators and supervisors recognized past weaknesses as continuing problems.

It was interesting and perhaps gratifying to note the reluctance with which most correspondents criticized a program they believed in so wholeheartedly; indeed, some of the replies received were rather testy, if not downright caustic, about the title of this chapter. But, after making their positions in favor of cooperative education abundantly clear, most correspondents went about their assigned task with great zeal, finding quite a few areas in which they felt the program might be strengthened.

It is not the task of this chapter either to defend or to condemn cooperative education, but rather to note the pitfalls that may be encountered with the thought that to be forewarned is to be forearmed. For what might be termed weaknesses usually turn out to be problems that can be solved given the proper circumstances. Few, if any, cooperative programs are inaugurated with every aspect in perfect accord. Most go through an evolutionary period that may require several years of development before the program reaches full fruition. Failure to understand the need for carefully nurturing the program during this seasoning creates many situations that are difficult to deal with at a later time.

The uninitiated are rightfully cautioned to proceed carefully, planning well in advance, and seeking the advice of those who have had successful experiences. One may say that this is true of any new educational undertaking, but cooperative education, intimately involving as it does school people, parents, students, and many influential employers, has an acute impact on public relations to be considered.

This fact among others points up an inherent weakness in the cooperative education program. That is, it is so wholly dependent upon the "right" person as coordinator.

THE COORDINATOR

The extent to which the personality, industry, and know-how of the coordinator make or break the cooperative program far exceeds the effect of a good or poor classroom teacher, as important as classroom teaching is. Both state and local supervisors as well as coordinators recognized the telling effect of the ability of the coordinator on the cooperative program and were concerned about the lack of good teacher education programs for coordinators on both the preservice and graduate levels. Correspondents gave specific opinions about coordinators: "A coordinator needs to be aggressive for his program." "The coordinator must keep selling his program to faculty, school administration, parents, students, and businessmen."

Some gave reasons for not attracting the best people: "The coordinator is not paid a salary commensurate with his required know-how" and "there is no real advancement for a coordinator in remaining on the job." Here are some other meaningful comments.

Says one supervisor, "Many mature teachers who have excellent teaching records are reluctant to leave the four walls of their classrooms and come into direct contact with the business world, thus often leaving coordinator positions to the young or inexperienced." As a result, the businessman judges the business department by a representative who has not yet had time to develop the wisdom and knowledge to deal with him on an equal basis. The program frequently becomes unbalanced as the inexperienced coordinator tries to juggle a difficult teaching assignment with the downtown visitation program, with the development of instructional units for related training, with problems relating to employer-parent-student grievances, and so on. This is not to say that all good teachers automatically make good coordinators—coordination is obviously not everyone's forte—but those who have had time to obtain a good deal of business experience are more likely to be interested in contacts with business and to be less likely to stand in awe of employers.

"Most problems can be solved given time and the right coordinator," says another, "but it takes the wisdom of Solomon and the patience of Job—and how many people are available with these qualifications?" (". . . and how many people with these qualifications are willing to take such a position at the pay rate of a regular classroom teacher?") What would be the ideal background of a coordinator? Some think a coordinator should have had experience as an office or department manager, a college degree with a major in either business or distributive education, plus successful teaching experience. But to play the devil's advocate for a moment, can these descriptions be overplaying the role of a coordinator and by doing so create problems in cooperative education? Given the normal attributes of a professional teacher who has had gainful employment in the vocational area in which he is teaching, are there not some rather apparent techniques and methods of coordination that can be developed and presented in a teacher education program? Might not prospective coordinators be required to serve a one- or two-year internship under a well-qualified, experienced coordinator? Should training for a coordinator be solely on the graduate level? A frontal attack on problems relating to the education of coordinators would without doubt yield satisfactory solutions.

Will not increased state and local supervision ease the burden of coordinators who often have been up to now the lonely pioneers in cooperative education in their localities? The need for well-qualified supervisors on state, area, and local levels remains critical. It seems safe to say that a continuing weakness of all vocational education is the lack of a backlog of leaders to man the many supervisory positions that are available.

To maintain a cooperative program at its full potential requires continuous sustenance by a resourceful, venturesome coordinator who has reasonable tenure in a school and who is not content to let coordination and classroom activities become routine. "After long tenure in the same position, it can happen that a coordinator will use the same instructional units year after year, place students in the same training stations year after year, making community contacts less and less, stultifying the entire program," comments a coordinator of twenty-four years. No coordinator can allow himself the luxury of a comfortable rut, for a cooperative program, like the vocational field for which it is set up, must be alive, vibrant, dynamic, seeking better ways of accomplishing its goals, instituting new methods and procedures when appropriate, and keeping abreast of the ever changing demands of employment.

What can be done to entice the outstanding, mature, experienced teacher into the coordinator's position? It seems reasonable to expect that the position of the coordinator be a promotion over the position of a regular classroom teacher. The position requires higher qualifications and extra work time for which a higher pay scale needs to be developed. Education below the college level needs promotional positions and to give a coordinator the rank of associate professor would be a step in the right direction. In office education where the cooperative program is the capstone in an occupational education curriculum, a cleavage between the regular classroom business teacher and the coordinator sometimes develops. The very facts that coordination activities take the coordinator away from the school during the school hours when the regular classroom teacher is not allowed to leave, that the coordinator is often the only business teacher being reimbursed from state and federal funds, and that special in-service training programs and meetings are set up to assist these persons do make it appear that special consideration is being given to one faculty group. If the position of coordinator becomes a promotional position, it can be argued, this would further widen the gap when the success of the cooperative program is dependent upon a good preparatory program and the support of the entire business faculty. This is, of course, a talking point; but to the contrary, might not the promotion add to the prestige of the coordinator position and thereby encourage cooperation?

To summarize, the position of the coordinator is a critical one in the success of a cooperative education program. Research is needed to determine methods and techniques of coordination that may be developed through a teacher education program. Assistance to the coordinator must be provided through supervision on local, regional, and state levels, and careful consideration must be given to ways and means of attracting and holding the most desirable and qualified teachers to this position.

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

There are differences among the cooperative education programs of the various vocational education fields. The related training programs in distributive education, industrial cooperative training, and cooperative office education differ widely in content and purpose. While all three of these programs expect students to have work experiences which will help them to bridge the gap from adolescence to adulthood, from high school student to full-time productive employee (an orientation to their future work life), industrial cooperative training and distributive education programs go much farther than that. In these programs most of the basic job skills and techniques are expected to be learned on the job; whereas, in office education the basic skills must be developed in the school and applied on the job. This fundamental difference is not fully appreciated by those in office education who try to pattern their cooperative office education programs exactly like that of distributive education and industrial cooperative training. The problem most commonly identified by the correspondents from both office and distributive education was that employers do not see that the student workers have a variety of activities and experiences on the job. This is a serious problem for distributive education and industrial cooperative training because the student is dependent upon a sequence of activities for the bulk of his occupational training. This is not as true of office education and there is danger of making problems when none need exist by insisting that all office education students have a wide variety of office experiences at the training station. In industrial cooperative training for example, a student interested in becoming an auto mechanic will be placed in a garage to learn his trade. The coordinator will have developed with garage personnel a step-by-step training outline which the student will follow. In the related training class the student has instructional materials relating to auto mechanics. The coordinator checks to see how well the training program is followed on the job and if the class materials are appropriate.

The distributive education program follows a similar plan. A unit in school might cover the selling of additional merchandise—a handbag to match a pair of shoes. The student is expected to follow this study with actual experience on the job selling additional merchandise. The coordinator makes frequent visits to the student on the job to assure that the job activities and the school program parallel one another.

Since office education students are expected to have saleable skills and background knowledge of office work prior to employment, in a cooperative program they are placed in the work training station to: (a) enable them to put to use what they have previously learned in school, (b) gain new knowledge and develop new skills, and (c) have experience a school cannot offer. The related training program offers remedial training where needed and supplements the downtown activities. On-the-job activities rarely can be placed in a training sequence.

Good work stations have to be developed. They are rarely in full bloom from the beginning. As the coordinator and the on-the-job supervisor develop good rapport and gain insights into each other's goals and responsibilities, so work stations become an effective educational facility.

Proper placement, fitting the right student to the work-training station appropriate for him, is the key to a successful cooperative education program. The problem—and it is a major problem—is to find work stations which have educational value for students with a wide range of job objectives and abilities. Many communities just do not have the variety of jobs necessary to accommodate all student needs. This is particularly true of the less able students, but very good students become highly dissatisfied too, if they are placed in work stations where the job activities quickly become for them unchallenging routine. Unless definite educational values are apparent in a work-training station for a particular student, it seems best not to use it, for cooperative education is not work experience.

The lack of continuing education programs for the downtown supervisors of cooperative students is another weakness of cooperative education. While many distributive education programs have incorporated within their adult programs training for the downtown supervisor, this has not been as widespread as it should be and has not been adopted by office education to any significant extent. The value of work training is so greatly enhanced by having a downtown supervisor who appreciates the educational purposes of the cooperative program and who enjoys and knows how to work with the cooperative student, that such a program is more than worth the effort to organize and conduct it.

A prominent businessman who has both office and distributive education cooperative students was asked, "Is business being altruistic in taking these cooperative students?" After some thought the businessman said that, in his opinion, business was not being altruistic—that business could not afford to be altruistic—but rather, the attitude of business was one of enlightened self-interest. It was his feeling that by cooperating with the school he was serving himself in several ways: (a) It was good public relations to be qualified for a training program sponsored by the school. (b) Productive part-time employees were needed during certain hours of the day. (c) He had an opportunity to assist in the training of his future employees since he hoped to employ the best ones full time after graduation. While this very fine person realized that this was an educational program he very readily admitted that production on the job was a major requirement of cooperative students as well as of regular employees. The two coordinators of these students—distributive and office—complained that this businessman rarely could find time once the students were placed on the job to evaluate with them their progress at work and the job activities in which they participated. As long as the students were meeting his requirements he felt no need for further consultation with coordinators. This attitude seems to be typical of many supervisors and the question arrises: Is this merely a placement program or a cooperative program? It is not easy to get the downtown supervisor to the place where he will accept coordination visits and provide time for them, but unless the coordinator is free to coordinate the work training and the classwork no cooperative program exists—no matter how prominent the businessman or how good the experience is. The coordinator who doesn't recognize this has sounded the first death knell for the cooperative education program.

In gaining know-how in working with businessmen and in getting the support of employers for cooperative education, no greater allies can be found than members of an advisory committee made up of top business people in the community. Too often school administrators and coordinators do not see the advantage of having an advisory committee. Too often coordinators find themselves working with businessmen where positions are not on a level high enough to get the action they seek. There are, of course, different advisory committees for different purposes—those made up of top management which predict trends in employment and in business, those made up of employers of cooperative students who have an intimate knowledge of the cooperative program, and those made up of specialists who can assist in the development of curriculum materials. All these persons are needed from time to time to assist and advise the school administration and the coordinator. Many correspondents gave the lack of these allies as a major weakness of the cooperative education program.

Many cooperative education programs are set up so that students are in school for one-half day and go to work for one-half day. In other situations students work full time on alternate weeks and are in school on alternate weeks, while another group is fulfilling the same jobs. Another pattern has students working for only the last 12 weeks of school, and so on. Whatever the schedule for the cooperative program, it does pose a problem to the principal in setting up the school program to the best advantage of the cooperative students. The principal understands the importance of these students being able to participate in as many of the school activities as possible and tries to schedule an activities period while the students are in school. He also tries to schedule all the classes required of the student during the half school-day while at the same time allowing the student to get to his work station in time to put in his minimum of three hours a day or, as most offices require, four hours a day. Many schools are not able to meet this situation ideally and cooperative students often are deprived of participation in school activities outside those that are specifically set up for them. Many correspondents considered lack of participation in extracurricular activities a major weakness of cooperative education programs.

Flexibility is needed in the cooperative program which will allow a student to remain in school full time to participate in an activity that is of great value to him and delay his work training until the second semester, or during the summer, or some other appropriate time. One of the problems that distributive education, particularly, has experienced is the requirement in many schools that all the students be placed by October 15 or some such early date in the school year. While it is important that distributive education students get on the job early because they are learning their basic skills on the job, several coordinators felt that individual student's needs should be taken into consideration and some flexibility should be allowed.

Much was said by the correspondents about the objectives of students in a cooperative program. Experienced coordinators and supervisors suggested that, with employment not difficult to obtain, some students tend to shortcut their vocational training. Many coordinators were concerned that a segment of their students looked upon the cooperative program primarily as a money-making activity. Some students do not see the value of going into a cooperative education program for they know that with the proper preparatory training in high school they can get an office job without any difficulty. Because the cooperative program in office education is most often available only in the senior year, other office students will enroll in distributive education or industrial cooperative training in order to earn money while in the eleventh grade. The latter group's objective in a cooperative program is not the same as their job objectives. One principal commented that he lost some of his best football players to a cooperative program because the boys had purchased automobiles which their parents required them to finance. It is often difficult to determine whether the student has a valid educational reason for being in a cooperative education program or whether he is merely there to pay for his automobile.

What about the student who is assisting his family financially from wages earned in a cooperative program? Does he have a valid educational goal there? Perhaps the work-study programs reimbursed through funds made available through the Vocational Education Act will help keep the cooperative programs "pure" by making it possible for vocational students to work without having to be on a cooperative program unless the program specifically meets their educational needs. Cooperative students are very conscious of the wage rates. The better students almost always feel they should have the best paying jobs, even though these jobs do not always capitalize on their abilities. It is difficult, if not impossible, to place students strictly for the educational benefits to be derived. As with adults, the size of the pay check greatly affects morale.

The lack of sufficient coordination time was suggested by many coordinators and supervisors as a major weakness of the cooperative program. Periods allotted to coordination activities during the school day rarely provide sufficient time. Any responsible coordinator will be found working many hours after school closes making downtown visitations and community contacts in the late afternoon, attending meetings and contracting parents and pupils at night. In office education in the past there were limited, if any, reimbursement funds to assist the locality in employing coordinators with time for coordination activities during the school day and for extended employment for eleven or twelve months; and twelve months employment in distributive education is not universal. Encroachment upon coordination time for all kinds of reasons is a continuing problem. A local or state supervisor is extremely helpful to the coordinator in working with the school principal and superintendent in establishing the need for coordination time. It is difficult for a coordinator who is the subordinate of the principal and the superintendent to present his case forcefully without injuring his relationship with the administration, particularly when extra assignments from the administration encroach on coordination time.

Once a coordinator is employed, the number of students that the one coordinator can handle is not clearly understood by the administration and often the coordinator has too many students to be able to give the proper attention to each one individually. The employment of two or three coordinators for a large program in cooperative office education or a large distributive education program should not be as unusual as it is. In many large schools only a minority of the office education students are in a cooperative program because the coordinator must select only the number that he can properly serve. Until recently, distributive education programs were solely cooperative education programs, and it was pointed out by many of the correspondents representing distributive education that a preparatory program was needed to undergird the cooperative program. Such preparatory training is becoming a reality with the institution two years ago of an introductory tenth-grade, noncooperative course. This additional class has become a mixed blessing where the distributive education coordinator is expected to teach it during the time previously allotted for coordination activities. A state supervisor with vast experience in distributive education says unequivocally that the greatest "weakness in cooperative education is coordination." When coordinators have too many students to visit on the job and not enough time for the visitation, the program loses its vocational value.

A private office and telephone for a coordinator is an obvious necessity. The fact that proper facilities save the coordinator many hours is an important by-product. One wonders why so few coordinators have these basic conveniences.

Hand in glove with a cooperative program is an adult education program, and the coordinator cannot ignore his responsibilities for the organization of in-service training programs for employed workers. As the coordinator visits work stations and talks to employers and employees, he readily becomes aware of the needs for in-service training in the community. The coordinator is also cognizant of the needs of his own graduates who are in the community work force. No longer can those responsible for occupational education in the high school ignore their responsibility for the continuing education of their graduates. In the past, continuing education programs have been considered as something separate and apart from the high school program, and failure to look at vocational education as an open-end, continuous education process remains a weakness.

Valid evaluation techniques for cooperative education are too difficult and time-consuming to use. Many surveys conducted to determine the effectiveness of cooperative programs have been of a negative nature. An objective evaluation instrument that measures the effectiveness of a cooperative program is not known to the author. Generally, the many experiences of coordinators over the years and the experiences of the cooperative students are melded through some procedure for determining the effectiveness of the program. Certainly a valid measuring instrument is greatly needed.

Almost all correspondents pointed up the need for instructional materials for the cooperative program, both distributive and office education. While some coordinators would like to have better text materials, most recognize that a variety of instructional materials are required to cover the in-school program. That these materials were not readily available in the past and are not too numerous and of good quality at the present time was cited as a major problem.

The development of instructional materials is an extremely difficult task and one that some think should not be required of a coordinator. One supervisor of distributive education has said that in his opinion the coordinator should not be expected to develop instructional units for the related training program. This should be done by specialists who have time for it. One might be constrained to ask: What specialists? What time?

Perhaps the outlook for the future is more hopeful. Most business and office education supervisors felt that the coordinators, with other business teachers contributing, should develop these instructional units. All agreed that instructional units for related training are essential and that these units need to be kept up to date.

Direction by way of the development of instructional units on the national level is emerging as is direction on the state level. It is to be hoped that as more local supervision becomes available, materials developed on state and national levels can be adapted to local employment opportunities and student needs.

SUMMARY

Cooperative education programs have had problems, are having problems, and will no doubt continue to have problems. Problems are certainly no reflection on a cooperative education program unless they are not recognized and no remedies are tried. The big task is to keep on top of the problems and keep a sense of proportion about them, for none are truly insurmountable, as some wit has said, "given the time and a good coordinator!"

Chapter 19

Projections for the Future

FRANK W. LANHAM, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest guidelines for the development of cooperative part-time programs now and in the future. Development of guidelines will enable educational decision-makers to enhance potential strengths and avoid weaknesses in programs, the strengths and weaknesses discussed in the preceding two chapters.

The guidelines discussion is in three parts: (1) basic elements of a cooperative education program; (2) unique characteristics of cooperative part-time programs that make this curriculum pattern worthy of educational recognition; and (3) a development and an operations system designed to yield maximum educational results as well as a system that is adaptable to change and improvement.

BASIC ELEMENTS OF COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

Basic elements of a cooperative part-time program are these: (a) a job "laboratory" or part-time paid work station in which the learner participates; (b) job-related instruction in school; (c) coordination activities performed by a school employee (activities are those performed as among the school, employers, pupils, parents, and other groups in the community); and (d) students—the objects toward which all program efforts are directed.

Job Laboratory. A part-time job experience in the occupational area for which a student is training is a basic part of a cooperative program. On the job, the student applies and tests his school preparation and extends his learning as he experiences beginning and mastering his job.

Usually, the job experience is scheduled toward the end of a training program as a capstone of a school's job preparation. The part-time job may be compared to the internship of the aspiring medical practitioner or to the practice teaching of the classroom practitioner.

The arrangements of time for work and study can and do vary from school to school. In a typical high school program, though, a senior student is enrolled mornings at school in one or two hours of required subjects and in one or two hours of job-related classes. His part-time employment starts soon after lunch and ends at closing time late in the afternoon. Work and study make a student's "total" program, a program that usually exceeds the energy and time expenditures of most other students in school. (We suggest by the foregoing that the term "part-time" as used in the title of this and the preceding two chapters may be a misnomer leading to a misunderstanding of the nature of the cooperative program.)

Work stations are selected in terms of employers' willingness to act as "downtown" faculty to guide the student from the uncertainties and awkwardness of the beginning worker to the later confidence of a proficient and productive worker.

A "paid job" is an integral part of the program and as such provides a quality standard. Employers will not extend wages for long to a student who fails to show interest or make progress in the job; and students recognize that they must produce to warrant their continuing on the payroll. Insistence on paid work as an integral part of the program also avoids the potential of employer "exploitation" at the one extreme and of "made work" at the other.

Guidelines for evaluating work stations are these: (1) Does the employer view himself as a job teacher of inexperienced workers? (2) Does he recognize an advantage in having school personnel to help in the "break-in" period of inexperienced workers? (3) Does he provide a training program representative of the range of tasks expected in the occupational area? (4) Does he share information with school personnel about strengths and weaknesses of the beginning worker? (5) Does he view the trainees as a rich pool of potential permanent employees? (6) Does he recognize the value of the cooperative experience by paying a higher full-time salary for former "co-ops" than for inexperienced full-time workers?

The latter two questions are key ones. A positive answer to these indicates that the employer does value cooperative education and his part in it.

Job-Related Instruction. An integral part of the cooperative program is the school's job-related instruction: instruction designed to provide the knowledges and skills needed for success in the current job; those needed for adapting to a changing job; and, to the extent possible, those needed for (or leading to) advancement.

In job-related instruction, one would expect the problems experienced in the work station to provide a wealth of classroom case materials that could be shared and solved by pupils. Indeed, because of the currency of job experiences, job-related instruction provides an opportunity to individualize and personalize instruction to a degree not found in too many other school subjects. Unfortunately, the potential for live case problems or even the student's job case study, "My Job Notebook," with its wealth of meaningful assignments is frequently overlooked by teachers who have the school's instructional responsibility.

Instead of capitalizing upon the unique potential, these teachers too often subvert their instruction to the more comfortable, traditional, lockstep-type class which, if it results in instruction related to the specific jobs held by students, is a happenstance rather than being planned that way. While some attempts are made to capitalize upon the unique opportunity for live content and case material, a great deal more innovation and tryout of techniques for utilizing job experience in the classroom are called for.

One other current difficulty in selecting content for job-related instruction is the absence of up-to-date knowledge of what specific jobs require. We propose the need for in-depth analyses of current jobs and clusters of jobs. We hypothesize the following improvements will occur therefrom in many school's job-related instruction: rather than current preoccupation with the knowledges and skills in the performance of job operations, depth analyses will uncover evaluative knowledges and skills, that is, those necessary for making decisions on the job. Depth analyses will also bring to light social or human relations and economic knowledges and skills required for successful employment. From a continuing kind of depth analyses will come a means of determining essentialness of specific knowledges and skills to job success. From these analyses should also come a determination of where the knowledges and skills can best be learned: at school or on the job. Depth analyses should provide in the future a foundation for a more viable related instruction program than is currently found.

Guidelines for evaluating job-related instruction are these: (1) To what extent does the instruction capitalize on current job experiences for live case problems? (2) To what extent does the instruction have current relevance and validity in terms of a changed and changing job cluster? (3) To what extent does the instruction emphasize essential learnings, learnings that are best taught in school? (4) To what extent can the instruction be validated through developing thoughtful, full-time workers motivated to learn and to continue to learn? (5) To what extent is the method of instruction differentiated to provide for the unique and specific individual needs of the learner?

Coordination Activities. The school-employed person responsible for program leadership is called the "coordinator." Whether or not the basic parts of a program are tied together in an integral whole is dependent upon the coordinator. And whether or not the cooperative program is an integral part of a total system of education is also dependent upon him. His responsibilities are those of a catalyst, to bring to bear the energies and resources of students, employers, parents, other teachers, and school administrators and to develop a learner into a competent employee. The coordinator's responsibilities, too, are those of a public relations agent, to bring about sympathetic understanding, support, and involvement of each of the above and other community groups.

In the past and present, launching and operating a successful program has depended on a continuing persuasion by a coordinator to sell and keep sold the principals of a program (i.e., students, employers, and parents) on their importance to the cooperative program. In the future, the coordinator may need just as much missionary zeal but his persuasion may need to be girded by more evidence—research evidence of substance. The absence of substantive research is, of course, not unique to this one kind of educational program. Yet, as a program that presents a break with traditional, classroom-type curriculums, the burden of proof of cooperative education's efficacy rests even more on the would-be innovator or coordinator.

Guidelines for evaluating a coordinator are these: (1) To what extent does he possess positive personal qualities that make it easy for him to talk and work with all groups connected with a cooperative program? (2) To what extent does he seek opportunities to disseminate program information among interested community groups? (3) To what extent is he a sympathetic counselor who can feed back both positive and negative information to students? (4) To what extent does he inspire students to want to do their best in all school and job-related activities? (5) To what extent is he creative or innovative in coordination and counseling.

The Student. The nature of the student to be served determines the job goals of any particular cooperative program. While employers frequently profess to want only geniuses to fill their entree vacancies, the reality of the labor market has usually caused personnel people to develop more practical levels of screening persons for a job. Some schools, however, currently encourage employers to hold unrealistically high demands by also screening those who can enter the program (for example, some schools require a grade average of "C" or higher and a good school attendance record for initial acceptance in the program). Unfortunately, such screening from the program of potential failures may eliminate people who can profit most from the cooperative program. But fortunately, the wide range of jobs usually enables coordinators to accept students with a correspondingly wide range of abilities to participate in programs. And, fortunately too, some students unable to adjust to the rigors of a lock-step school curriculum are able to become "A"-grade workers in a cooperative program.

Unlike programs in which only average and above-average students can participate, a few cooperative programs have been developed in which the clientele selected were disadvantaged, retarded, or reluctant learners. In such programs, one would expect coordinators to provide a greater individualized guidance and counseling than in other types of programs, employers to be willing to act as "big brothers," and teachers to be willing to bend their instructional methods to meet the particular characteristics of the kinds of individuals faced. Because of the nature of students enrolled, such special applications of the cooperative pattern do require more time and energy to operate, with less chance of success, than one with other types of students. Yet, that the cooperative pattern can be made adaptable to meet the needs of some of these—and, as such, is one of the few curriculum patterns that can do so—makes cooperative program development for disadvantaged, retarded, or reluctant learners an important pattern for the future.

Guidelines for evaluating students enrolled in a program are these: (1) To what extent are pupils placed in jobs in which on the one hand the experiences are challenging, but on the other the learner does have a high potential of being successful? (2) Do students grow and develop in their learning to work without compromising other worthy educational objectives? (3) Do students exhibit a high degree of enthusiasm and satisfaction with the various phases of the program? (4) Is there considerable employer satisfaction with students' willingness and productivity? (5) In viewing the total school population, are the kinds of students selected for the program those who can profit most from the experience?

By definition, then, the elements of a cooperative part-time program that make the program "cooperative" are the paid part-time work station, school instruction related to the job, coordination activities that tie the elements together, and the nature of students enrolled. It is out of these basic elements as a whole that certain unique characteristics of the program can be developed, characteristics that provide a certain amount of face validity as a school curriculum pattern of job preparation.

UNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS

To be worthy of educational recognition, cooperative part-time programs, as any curriculum pattern, must provide some unique educative experiences which, for some students, are equal to or better than any other that could be applied.

Empirically, we can say that the potential characteristics of uniqueness are available in the cooperative pattern. Whether or not a specific characteristic is capitalized upon and attained within programs, however, does vary. Additional measurement of programs in the future should lead to better ways of identifying means and methods that do enhance the achievement of unique characteristics.

We propose the following unique characteristics that, if attained, do make the cooperative plan worthy of educational recognition. The characteristics are these: (1) the coordinator is forced to treat the individual as an individual at least in job placement and, dependent upon the quality of program personnel, in individual counseling and guidance and in job-related instruction; (2) because of the wide diversity of jobs and job requirements, the program is adaptable to a wide range of individual needs and abilities; (3) in "less than college grade" programs, i.e., secondary schools and community colleges, the work experience (in the "real live world") comes at a time when many youth feel the need to put aside "paper dolls" and learn to participate as an adult in an adult world; (4) job instructional content and method can be "personalized" to the current job-related experiences of the learner; (5) job-related and school-related experiences can reinforce each other and thus motivate more learning in all school subjects; (6) job-related experiences can provide social and economic learnings unavailable through simulation or school laboratories; (7) the job can provide a practical standard against which the student can measure and develop a self-image of worth and, frequently, adjust his level of aspirations; and (8) the economic benefits of a paid work experience can provide incentive and, sometimes, the wherewithal for continued learning.

As guidelines, each of the foregoing characteristics can be used to evaluate the extent to which the unique characteristic is used to enhance program, or in a negative way, the extent to which the characteristic is subverted and thus lost as a unique element.

Legislative Encouragement of Cooperative Education

The foregoing (and other) characterisitics of uniqueness contain sufficient face validity to have persuaded legislators (federal and state) to provide extra monies (beginning with the Smith-Hughes law of 1917) for the encouragement of cooperative programs. This persuasion culminated in the expanded Vocational Education Act of 1963 which under most state plans includes provisions for subsidizing part of the operating costs of local schools' cooperative programs. In no small way, the 1963 Vocational Education Act has been the impetus in most states for the multiplication of cooperative programs in the past five years, both at the secondary and community college level.

Because of the national welfare, federal and state legislation has limited the subsidy for cooperative part-time programs "of less than college grade" and of vocational intent. While the discussion here is focused on those programs, some future programs may well be validated in terms of their general education—a potential that curriculum directors should not ignore, with or without federal or state incentives in added funds.

DEVELOPING AND OPERATING A PROGRAM

In a brief projection for the future, a check list of promising practices that could be tried and evaluated are suggested as they relate to developing and operating a program.

Program Development Check List

To what extent is each of the following items used in developing a program and how effective is it? The answer to this question for each of the check-list items provides guidelines for developing a cooperative part-time program.

1. Assessing the student body and determining the kinds of students to be served by the cooperative program.
2. Assessing the local job market to determine availability of work stations that can be held by students.
3. Gaining school board and administrative personnel support.
4. Developing understanding and support of counselors and school faculty.
5. Appointing (through the school superintendent or board) a steering committee of local leaders in business and labor. (Such a committee is one to help formulate program policy, review operation, and help publicize results in the community.)
6. Involving counselors and faculty in the formulation of program plans for related instruction.
7. Publicizing the program in media and by means to reach all involved groups; i.e., talks at service clubs; news releases to local papers, radio, and television; announcements in faculty bulletins and releases to student newspapers; appearances in faculty meetings and student assemblies.
8. Soliciting and selling potential employers to provide work stations and developing job descriptions and training programs based on work stations.
9. Interviewing potential participants, scheduling classes, matching students with jobs, getting parental consent, and getting employer acceptance of specific trainees for jobs.

As in any new enterprise, "make ready" planning and launching of a program are costly in time and energy. Such necessary planning should be done at least a year prior to operating, with a school person assigned time during the "make ready" year for development activities. Again, in the first year of operation, the number of participants should be limited to perhaps one-fourth the number expected in a fully developed program to allow time to meet and solve the numerous problems of any new enterprise.

Program Operation

The following check list is suggestive of areas of activities in operating an on-going program. As such, each item also can be used as a guideline. The extent to which the item is practiced, as well as the quality of its results, becomes the evaluative criterion.

1. Selecting students who can profit most from the program.
2. Expanding through employer contacts the number and kinds of work stations in the business community.
3. Scheduling new students and placing them on jobs.
4. Visiting cooperating employers periodically and evaluating student job progress.
5. Feeding employer evaluations back to students.
6. Planning and providing job-related instructional experience.
7. Developing and using program publicity pieces with employers, parents, students, and other community leaders.
8. Developing filmstrips and/or slides of in-school and out-of-school program activities.
9. Developing and operating a youth club for program participants.
10. Using news media for recognition of employers and program participants as newsworthy events develop.
11. Inviting employers to participate in in-school programs.
12. Inviting employers and other community leaders to open houses to displays of participants' school work.
13. Developing recognition and award events such as an employer-employee banquet, certificate of completion awards, or youth club activities award events.
14. Operating a "Careers in Business" day (with other faculty, of course) or Business, Labor, Industry, Education Day.

The list of promising activities which coordinators can develop and utilize in an on-going program is limited only by the creativity of the individuals involved and the time available. Perhaps the greatest occupational hazard in operating such a program is determining priorities for time utilization that will pay off in maximum student development.

The determination of priorities is best decided by evidence—evaluative data collected about facets of the program which aid in making decisions about potential operating changes. Some data will be collected, of course, primarily for reporting purposes. These descriptive data are used to keep each of the publics involved in the program informed of what's going on. Numbers of participants, nature of jobs held, turnover, and follow-up information concerning job history are among the descriptive types of information needed on a continuing basis.

Two other types of evidence collection, though, are needed if the program is to be adaptive to change: (1) case study information containing some systematic data that could be evaluated nationally on a large sampling basis, related to the input-output effects on various kinds of student participants, and (2) research studies of substance that validate, beyond face validity, the impact of various program inputs in terms of their expected results in effective workers, the output of cooperative part-time programs.

Good as the salesman may sound today in persuading school districts to develop and operate cooperative part-time programs, continued improvement of this curriculum plan must be based in the future on findings of substantive research.

7. GENERAL EDUCATION OF BUSINESS STUDENTS

Chapter 20

Strengths of the Past and Present

MAX R. CARRINGTON, Florence State College, Florence, Alabama

The history and development of business education closely parallels the history of the economic development of the country. Based on the needs of business, business education has developed to serve not only business but also the individual in his everyday life.

Probably no field in education has made more rapid progress within the past eighty years than has the business education field. This progress is perceived not only in the number of subjects offered, but in their content, their place in the curriculum, the textbooks, tests, and other aids for the use of the teachers and the students, and in the improved methodology used by the business education teachers in presenting the subject matter.[1]

Much of the credit for advancement in the business education field goes to the teachers who took advantage of the training accessible to them in institutions of higher learning. A great deal of progress has been made since World War I in applying the findings of research and in encouraging additional research in business education. This research has tended to improve the organization and methods of instruction in business education subjects offered on the high school level and also on the collegiate level. Many business teachers have participated in research during their graduate work. The realization that business education has made remarkable strides since its introduction into the secondary and collegiate schools gives business educators the hope that even greater progress will be achieved within the next few decades.[2]

---

[1] Wagner, Sister M. Alexius, O.P. Edgewood College, Madison, Wisconsin. Comments on Doctoral dissertation in letter dated April 9, 1967.

AIMS

Business education is in a unique position in that it contributes to both the general education and the vocational education of American youth. When business education first came into being, there was no thought of anyone's studying business subjects for his own personal use: consequently, nonbusiness students were discouraged from taking these courses. Today business education subjects are popular subjects with the students. Typewriting is the number one elective in the secondary schools. Many of these students do not consider themselves "business majors" but desire a working knowledge of typewriting and many other business subjects for their personal use.

Our aim in business education should be not only to teach the skills that will enable the young person to earn a living, but also to contribute to his over-all knowledge and well-being for the rest of his life.

The aim of many of the business education leaders is to keep abreast of the changing requirements of business, for business and the responsibilities of business positions are constantly changing. Because of this, the business education curriculums in the more progressive schools are continually increasing in scope and preciseness.

The early aims and objectives of business education were almost exclusively vocational. Since World War I, social understandings have been more highly emphasized in the general educational program, especially in the business education curriculum. Social values have been stressed so as to give a broader and more liberal training to students who expect to become gainfully employed directly upon leaving high school. This liberal training also prepares boys and girls to participate in the many social and civic activities of modern life.[3] As long as we can keep these aims in mind, business education will continue to grow and meet the needs of young people and the community in which they live. Businessmen will meet us half way—let's set our goals not only to meet the requirements of businessmen but also to improve our business education programs in every way possible.

---

[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*

CURRICULUM

Generally, the term curriculum is used to designate the courses or subjects offered by a school or by a particular department within the school. The courses are arranged systematically in a sequence according to their difficulty and their relation to one another.[4] By definition, the curriculum seems to consist of subjects only, but in actual present-day practice the curriculum has become more inclusive and embraces extra curricular and community activities as well as subject matter.

Who shall prepare the curriculum? This is a question that is often heard in the field of business education. The curriculum should be prepared through the cooperation of both school administrators and teachers. Without the help of teachers, administrators cannot hope to carry out the program in a successful manner. There seems to be a special reason why business teachers should be consulted by administrators who plan the business curriculums. Few administrators have studied business subjects; fewer still have taught them. A business curriculum needs to be an enriched program of study that not only develops skills necessary to earn a living but also contributes to the general education program of the young person. It is apparent that leaders in business education have always had the interests of business students at heart when they sought improvements in the curriculum. The leaders realize that the boys and girls in the classrooms today will be the business leaders of tomorrow. A majority of educated adults agree that each efficient member of society needs basic business knowledge irrespective of his vocation in life.

Since the beginning of the century, the organization of the high school curriculum has witnessed marked changes. The two main objectives of high school—preparing for college and preparing for life—are still maintained, but the latter operates much more definitely than it did previous to 1900. The business education curriculums play a leading role in preparing boys and girls for life.

The current practice of adapting the business curriculum to the needs of the local business community enables the student to choose wisely the firm for which he desires to work at the completion of his training. The transition from the classroom to the office has been made easier through the work-experience program that has been adopted by some of the more progressive secondary schools and colleges.[5] The business curriculum has advanced from writing, arithmetic, and bookkeeping to a program that can help to satisfy the needs of all students in our modern school systems today.

---

[4] Nolan, C. A., and Hayden, Carlos K. *Principles and Problems of Business Education.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1958. p. 33.

TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

It is felt by many of the leaders in business education today that among the strongest influences in the evolution of business education were the early textbooks. It seems that many of the early textbooks were written by teachers to use in their own teaching, and they gradually came to be used as textbooks in the various schools. Approximately one-third of the states provide for state adoption of textbooks. This state uniformity is confined largely to the South and the Far West, while in the remainder of the states the selection of textbooks is a function of the county or local school district.

It seems that business education is one of the more fortunate areas in being supplied with adequate textbooks and materials. Textbook companies are now publishing better business textbooks because teachers have demanded them. A large number of publishing companies specializing in business textbooks makes for a wider variety of selection and a better quality of textbook material.

Every teacher, even one who is a master of his subject, needs a textbook. The more inexperienced a teacher is, the more he needs a textbook; the more experienced a teacher is and the better prepared he is, the less he needs to depend on a textbook except as a guide to better teaching. Probably no field in education has made more progress in textbooks, tests, and other materials for both teachers and students to use than the field of business education.

EQUIPMENT

Regardless of how well the business curriculum is prepared and how excellent the qualifications of the teachers, it is necessary to have adequate equipment for a well-balanced program in business education. It seems that many of our schools have not used a planned program for adding equipment. Final legal responsibility for the selection of equipment rests with the school board. It is always wise for business teachers to offer suggestions as to the needs of their departments. A wise school board will always listen to the recommendations of their business teachers. The following factors should always be considered when buying equipment:[6]

---

[5] Wagner, *op. cit.*

1. The equipment should further the aims of business education in the school.
2. The equipment should fill the curriculum needs of the school.
3. The equipment should be of a type used in the community.
4. The equipment should require skill in its operation.
5. The equipment should be modern.

The financial assistance available to business education programs, primarily through the Vocational Education Act of 1963, will allow an expanded program, not only in equipment but in better preparing a greater number of people to qualify for gainful employment.

STANDARD OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

The term "standard" has many different meanings to business educators and is, therefore, often misunderstood. Some standards are definite and widely recognized and accepted. Others are vague and too low to have any real value. This latter is true of standards of achievement in many of our individual business courses.

According to H. G. Enterline, a standard of achievement is "a level of attainment which has universal acceptability and common meaning."[7] According to this definition, we have few uniform standards of achievement in individual business subjects. One major problem in establishing standards is the fact that there are no generally accepted standards recognized by employers. Therefore, instead of attempting to set up standards comparable to those of employers, educators should cooperate with employers in working out reasonable standards for beginning employees.

Business teachers have made an excellent start in setting standards of achievement in the skill subjects. We need to strive to find acceptable goals of achievement that meet the needs of our students and the people that employ them.

---

[6] Nolan and Hayden, *op. cit.* p. 190.

[7] Eterline, H. G. "Factors Involved in Attaining Higher Standards of Achievement in Business Subjects." American Business Education Yearbook. 1945. p. 26.

BACKGROUNDS AND OBJECTIVES OF STUDENTS

The backgrounds and objectives of students in our classes vary with the size of the class. Business education teachers have been able to develop strong departments in most high schools without requiring any of their courses of all students.

First, let us examine the necessities for a background in business. Certain specific subject matter is considered an integral part of business education. This includes:

1. General or basic business—business law, economics, business principles, and business communications
2. Economics—economics, applied economics, and consumer economics
3. Bookkeeping and accounting
4. Typewriting
5. Selling and service occupations
6. Stenographic-secretarial—shorthand, machine dictation, machine transcription, and secretarial practice.[8]

A background in business should begin in the middle high school years with these basic subjects. Training and preparation should continue throughout high school and college years. In most areas of business, training could be effectively extended into additional years of study toward a graduate degree. Objectives of students vary according to the sincerity of the individual's interest in this field. However, basically each student has in mind to obtain the best possible training in business so that he can confidently face society with the knowledge that he is prepared to make his place. With this adequate training, a student can understand more effectively the American business system through which all his economic wants and needs are satisfied.[9]

The training the student receives in the secondary school business education program provides him with valuable tools for his college education as well as vocational training that will qualify him for an office position. It is worthwhile for almost all students to elect some business subjects, whether they plan to attend college or to go to work upon high school graduation. A student going to college may use his business training as a source of income to defray college expenses; a high degree of skill in typewriting is practically a must for college students in this automation age; and shorthand training is certainly a big advantage in taking notes or gathering research data. If the student wishes to find employment upon graduation from high school, his business training should qualify him for many of the office positions available.[10]

---

[8] Eyster, Elvin S. "A Philosophy of Business Education To Meet Change." *Business Education Meets the Challenges of Change*. National Business Education Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, 1966. p. 189.

[9] *Ibid*, p. 192.

There are many different objectives and reasons for students' taking business training. Whether it be to qualify him for the position he wishes for life or a personal desire for knowledge, business training is high on the list of many students in our school systems of today.

METHODS OF TEACHING

The teachers in the field of business education are a very active and productive group. It may be that the nature of their training has developed work habits that make a special contribution to their success in professional organizations and in their professional development. This also shows up in their classroom achievements.

It may be said that cooperation between schools and business has become more important in recent years. The schools have much to learn from business, and business has much to learn from schools. The sooner business educators and businessmen realize that business and education cannot be separated, the greater will be the improvements in the business education program. Through their contacts with businessmen, business teachers have been able to improve business programs in the schools because they have become conversant with the methods and techniques used in business.[11]

Although the use of good teaching methods is important in business education, the teacher should not follow any one method at all times. Business teachers have found that they need to use one method for a particular group of students and an entirely different method for another group. The flexibility of business teachers in adjusting their methods of procedure in the classroom has made the business programs grow in many of the schools. In the end, it is the result that really matters; so business teachers should be familiar with the various methods of teaching and then choose and use the one from which *they* can obtain the best results. A teacher, in order to obtain good student-teacher relationship and thus a good classroom environment, should vary his teaching procedures. Above all, he should be friendly, human, and sympathetic, but remember that he is a *business* teacher and thus act and conduct his classes in a businesslike manner at all times.

---

[10] Payne, Vernon. North Texas State University, Denton. From letter dated April 10, 1967.

[11] Wagner, *op. cit.*

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

All authorities seem to agree that the teacher is the single most important factor in the success of a business education program.

> The success of the educational process depends, in large measure, on the teacher. No doubt, some people are born teachers; but not many. Consequently, it is necessary to utilize the services of thousands of persons who become successful teachers through training and experience.[12]
>
> At any rate this must be admitted: that with the exception of the recognized objectives, the teacher is the most important factor entering into the success of the business education program.[13]

The teacher is employed primarily to instruct and, in order to do this, must have had the necessary background and training. Business teachers have been given increased opportunity for professional growth and advancement. Many colleges and universities have inaugurated courses in business education. Because the business teachers have become better educated, many other improvements have taken place in the business education program. Much of the credit for the advancement in the field goes to the teachers who took advantage of the training accessible to them in the institutions of higher learning.

A great deal of progress has been made in the past forty years in applying the findings of research and in encouraging additional research in business education. This research has tended to improve the organization and methods of instruction in business education subjects offered on the high school and also on the collegiate level. Many business teachers have participated in research during their graduate work in college.[14]

---

[12] Tonne, Herbert A. *Principles of Business Education.* New York; Gregg Publishing Co., 1961. p. 478.

[13] Nolan, C. A., and Walters, R. G. *Principles and Problems of Business Education.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1950. p. 337.

[14] Wagner, *op. cit.*

The realization that business education has made great strides since its introduction into the secondary and collegiate schools gives business educators the hope that even greater progress will be achieved within the next few decades.

The improved teacher-training program, the increased qualifications for teachers, and the more intelligent solutions of the problems in business education have brought about a great improvement in the respect shown business education teachers by their fellow academic teachers.

It is felt that the implications for the future of business education are good. Business educators must ever look forward to additional training programs, to cooperation within the profession, and to a closer contact with business at all levels.

Chapter 21

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

WOODIE L. TUCKER, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond

When Sputnik blasted off its launching pad somewhere inside the Soviet Union, it also blasted the United States out of its complacent notion that ours is the best of all possible educational systems. Soon American education was under attack by a number of competent and concerned people, and educators were compelled to take a critical look at their handiwork. "Why Johnny Can't Read" became a favorite topic of conversation among teachers, parents, and an aroused citizenry; and under close scrutiny, it became apparent that there were many weaknesses in the general educaiton of American children.

SOME WEAKNESSES

In English

No, Johnny couldn't read. And he couldn't write and he couldn't spell, either. Experience charts and word association with pictures in the elementary schools and the abandonment of phonetics had produced people who didn't like to read and who didn't read because they couldn't read with facility. These are the people who met overwhelming defeat when they attempted the phonetic writing of shorthand and who transcribed "properly" for "probably," who wrote about "railway determinals," and who saw nothing peculiar about a sentence which read "I hope this pleasant relationship will continue indifferently!"

Many public school students are inept in the usage of almost every aspect of their native tongue. Some students come from homes where good English is the established order, and they continue in that way; others bring to school with them poorer English usage from poorer environments, and the school does little or nothing for them. It is difficult for even the good English teacher to accomplish very much by insisting upon good usage one hour a day while poor usage is being practiced at home and ignored or tolerated during the remainder of the day at school.

When college faculties listen to and read with horror the atrocious English usage of their freshman classes and ask students how they have managed to pass four years of high school English, the reply is always the same: "We were taught literature, not grammar." Unfortunately, the literature is frequently taught badly also; and students who have had little else in the name of high school English have often missed the enduring values which they should have derived. Almost all of them have read and memorized parts of Keats' "Ode on a Grecian Urn." A surprisingly large number have had that experience without ever knowing what an urn is; and it is a rare one indeed who found in that poem the thought that the purposeful pursuit of a desirable goal has value in itself, even though the goal may be unattainable. These same students have read Browning without perceiving the same philosophical notion in his line "Ah, but a man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for?"—which many of them also memorized. Our public schools teach the poetry of Robert Frost, and commencement speakers like to use as a text these lines from "The Road Not Taken":

Two roads diverged in a woods, and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.

Students have missed the point that the poet is talking about the necessity for making decisions and that whenever one must choose among alternatives, the choice will make all the difference.

What have our students learned in their English classes? Every student who has passed through my classes during the past ten years admits to having memorized the principle parts of verbs; two people had a rather fuzzy notion of the usefulness of what they had learned. Almost all of them could quote the four words which follow immediately after "to be, or not to be. . . ."

In Mathematics

Students enrolled in high school business curriculums—many of whom eventually enroll in post-high school programs in preparation for careers in a world of figures and computers—receive a mere soupcon of instruction in mathematics. Many of them receive instruction only in business arithmetic; some have had one year of algebra. When these students are asked the procedure for dividing one common fraction by another, one receives in unison the loud and clear response, "Invert and multiply!" These well-trained parakeets haven't the slightest notion why this procedure works, believe that reciprocals were invented solely for use on inadequate machines that cannot do direct division, and probably see little difference between what they are saying and the injunction to go forth, multiply, and replenish the earth!

Many of these students are victims of a procedure whereby they learned first that it is impossible to subtract a given number from a smaller number. Then one day, if they took algebra, they were told that what they had learned really is not true. They encountered negative numbers, and they were told to subtract numbers of unlike signs by changing the sign of the subtrahend and adding. Worse yet, they were told to add numbers of unlike signs by subtracting and taking the sign of the larger number! Rarely are they shown a numbers continuum or given an explanation of the shortcut which they are taught to use.

In History

American history is taught in American schools for the very same reason that Russian history is taught in Russian schools and French history is taught in French schools. We are in the business of teaching the children of Americans to be Americans. That process, we believe, is facilitated by learning how we came to be where we are in order that experiences of the past might point the way for the future. Somehow the study of American history was split at 1865 and wrapped in two neat packages representing two semesters of work, presumably because somebody at some time thought this was an equitable distribution of the material to be presented in two semesters. How long does it take to accumulate three semesters of history? And what do students learn in their history classes? All too often their idea of history is a collection of unrelated dates and obscure events. Fulton, Whitney, and Sherman all left their marks on the United States; but surely their influence has been rivaled by many people in this century. How old does history have to be in order to be taught?

A majority of the students in high school curriculums other than college preparatory receive instruction in American history only, a practice which tends to foster a rather distorted impression of the world community. Those students who have been exposed to other history courses often retain only tremendous trifles of information. The War of the Roses is remembered because it has a nice, romantic sound; memories of Hannibal tend to linger, because to march elephants over the Alps does seem a rather "hip" thing to do; and anybody who had as many wives as Henry VIII is bound to be memorable, although the number of spouses attributed to him is almost always exaggerated to eight! Well, it does seem sort of reasonable for Henry VIII to have eight wives, and it removes the necessity for remembering two different numbers.

The point is that students in American high schools seem to have missed quite uniformly the continuity, the "ongoingness," of history; that today is no more nor any less in the totality of time than a day in the third century B.C.; that today is different because of what occurred yesterday; that tomorrow will be different because of what we do today; that tomorrow will be different even if we do nothing today, and possibly *for that very reason!*

In Science

At least the science courses which are provided for students in the secondary business curriculum have been carefully labeled "general science," and the use of that qualifying adjective is usually enough to make any course suspect. It is very nearly impossible to find a graduate of a business curriculum who has heard of Boyle's law, the Doeppler effect, or Mendel's theory of heredity. From their science classes they retain a memory of the smell of "rotten-egg" gas and of having seen a tadpole lose its tail. Most of them do not have the faintest notion why the directions on a package of cake mix are different for baking at high altitudes or why iced tea becomes cloudy in the refrigerator.

The weakness, then, of the general education of high school students lies in the fact that they have not been required to think, made to understand, nor taught to apply what they have learned. They are unable to organize material; they have been trained to follow specific directions instead of being taught to solve problems through logical thinking.

WHAT PRODUCED THESE WEAKNESSES?

Inadequate Preparation of Teachers

In this century we have "progressed" from teachers holding Normal Professional Certificates issued after two years of college training to teachers holding baccalaureate degrees in education. The requirement of two additional years of college work did not always produce teachers with a better grasp of the subject matter they teach. Instead, it often produced pedagogues steeped in the history and philosophy of education who were glib in endless discussions of methodology, motivating devices, challenging experiences, group dynamics, visual aids, and ability grouping. They were the possessors of many obscure facts concerning early kindergartens in Milwaukee, Rousseau's *Emile,* and the Star of the Renaissance. After one course in Educational Psychology, they were inclined to attribute any unusual behavior on the part of a student to parental incompatibility and troubles at home. These are the teachers who, as late as 1950, were certified to teach English with twelve semester hours of work in that subject, who were certified to teach shorthand and typewriting upon demonstrated ability (demonstrated how and to whom?) with no college credits whatever, and with similarly low requirements in other subject areas. In California, an awareness of these inadequacies resulted in the Fisher Act of 1961, which eliminated professional education as a major subject for a college degree and required prospective teachers to earn a degree in an academic subject.

Students have suffered, too, at the hands of teachers who came in through the back door. Many a social studies and general business class has been taught by a physical education teacher because he needed another class to fill up his schedule and without regard to his interest in or ability to teach that course. Entirely too many business courses have been taught by apologists who felt that business students *per se* were inferior, that they did not merit high-level instruction, and that anybody could teach business subjects.

Misuse and Overuse of Standardized Tests

The plethora of tests which we have been and still are using is not in itself a cause of poor educational practice. But the nature of the tests, the manner in which they are administered, and a misuse of the test results have contributed to some rather odd occurrences. There is the delightful (and verified) story of the school board member who, upon discovering that his son had an IQ score of 75, said, "Thank God he passed!" There is another story of a conscientious teacher who picked up the IQ scores of her students at the beginning of the year. At the end of the year when she computed final grades, those having low IQ's and high grades were given bonus points because they had worked beyond their capacities and were over-achievers. Those having high IQ's and low grades had their grades lowered still more because they were under-achievers who had not worked. Some time later this conscientious teacher discovered that what she had thought were IQ scores were really locker numbers. Too many professional people do not distinguish between the scores derived from different scales; too many consider scores to be absolute, unchanging and unchangeable; too many fail to recognize that test scores, whether high or low, give no indication of interest, industry, and motivation; and it is even questionable whether some of these tests measure what they are supposed to measure. The number of such tests—IQ, STEP, SCAT, assorted aptitude tests, CEEB (taken repeatedly), Graduate Record, and National Teachers—is appalling, and people keep right on succeeding or failing in spite of them, and often contrary to the prognosis.

"Things"

This is the age of gadgets, gimmicks, and innovations. "From ghoulies and ghosties, long leggitie beasties, and things that go bump in the night, Good Lord deliver us!" reads a portion of an old Scottish litany. The author could not possibly have had in mind overhead projectors, tachistoscopes, filmstrips, closed circuit television, tape recorders, record players, programed texts, and the language laboratories which have turned classrooms into machine shops; but the fervent supplication for deliverance from "things" is appropriate. The burgeoning school population has, of course, ruled out the possibility of having a Mark Hopkins on one end of a bench and a student on the other; but the personal contact between the teacher and student has been lost to the student's detriment. Each of us has seen one of these would-be panaceas skyrocket into prominence and fade into oblivion. In the heyday of programed instruction, a leading purveyor of that innovation has been quoted as having said to a friend: "If you are interested in this thing, get on the bandwagon quickly; it will be dead as a doornail in five years!" It is most unfortunate that valuable aids to instruction have been substituted frequently for instruction itself.

Confused Objectives

In 1918, the United States Bureau of Education published a report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education called the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* That report contained the famous "seven cardinal principles" of the educational process: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) worthy use of leisure time, (5) vocation, (6) citizenship, and (7) ethical character. That report also contained this sentence: "Democracy sanctions neither the exploitation of the individual by society, nor the disregard of the interests of society by the individual."

The philosophy embodied in that sentence and in the cardinal principles has not been superseded, but it is frequently disregarded in the general education of students in vocational curriculums. The individual is exploited when he is encouraged to decide (or when it is decided for him) that he is to become a clerk-typist or a file clerk and that his educational needs are, therefore, limited and very specific. The interests of both the individual and society are disregarded when the student is taught how to earn a living but not how to live. The seven cardinal principles were meant to serve as guides equally for the education of all American children. While it is to be expected that the vocational objective is to be stressed in a vocational curriculum, it is unfortunate that the other six have been provided for business students with varying degrees of casualness.

Educators accepted with alacrity the psychological premise that the whole child comes to school, but we have not succeeded in educating the whole child. The assumption is that the graduate of a vocational business curriculum will seek employment in business upon being graduated and that he will remain in similar employment. For that reason we stress the vocational principle while giving only passing recognition to the other six cardinal principles. There is, however, something wrong with the basic assumption. The office worker has a life outside the office for which we have not prepared him; and a great many graduates of high school vocational programs seek post high school training, often because they have changed their objectives. We have, then, the peculiar situation in which a high school program designed to be vocational and terminal turns out to be another college preparatory program for many people; but we have not prepared the student to exercise the prerogative of changing his mind.

Even in the vocational aspect of the high school program, we are not succeeding particularly well. Entirely too many people who pass high school business courses do not have sufficient skill for initial employment, and many of them who seek further training in private business schools and colleges find that they must repeat the same skill courses which they passed in high school. Guidance personnel are firm in their denials that they *put* students in classes—that they do not permit students to make their own decisions. The fact remains, however, that in too many instances the business department is looked upon as a dumping ground; and students who are considered unfit for college preparatory programs are guided into vocational programs where they have little chance to succeed. In order to avoid having to explain why large numbers of these students fail, business teachers have lowered standards more and more. The result is that many students are being graduated from business departments with skills inadequate for initial employment. They can read and write shorthand, but they can't produce mailable letters; they can type straight copy for five minutes, but they can't handle typewriting problems; they have been taught the mechanics of bookkeeping and record keeping without the socio-economic implications.

In the post-Sputnick era, we have seen business courses being forced upward out of the high schools and downward out of the four-year colleges. The trend marks the dawn of the heyday for private business schools, technical schools, and junior colleges. "The old order changeth . . ."; change requires adjustment; and we may have to admit that the public secondary school is not the best place for developing vocational competency. Recorded history may point to this period as a milestone—the point at which schools at all levels stopped trying to be all things to all people and each undertook, instead, to perform that particular function for which it is best suited.

Chapter 22

Projections for the Future

JOHN D. LAMBERT, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond

These thoughts on general education for business students are presented in four parts. First, there is a discussion of the goals of education, including a description of proposed research aimed at accomplishing these goals with greater efficiency. While the proposed research is that for the "New" Office Education Learnings System (NOELS), its unique contribution is that of an interdisciplinary systems approach to curriculum development and its innumerable implications for both the general and vocational education of youth. Second, there is a description of the purpose-centered curriculum and a discussion of how an integration of new instructional strategies with this curriculum plan can tailor learning experiences to the individual abilities and needs of students. Third, there is a set of principles which might serve as guidelines to business teachers who want to lend leadership in maximizing the attainment of educational goals by business students. The principles emphasize the need for greater involvement by business teachers in the total curriculum effort. Fourth, the thoughts of Frederick G. Nichols on "the place of academic subjects in the business curriculum" are presented. While it is intended that Nichols' points serve as food for thought, his points certainly have as much relevance today as they did thirty-five years ago. The significant time difference is that today's instructional media make implementation of his suggestions easier.

THE GOALS OF EDUCATION AND THE POTENTIAL FOR THEIR MEASUREMENT

The question of what the general education of business students should be might be answered quickly and in a very short space. One might flippantly respond by saying that we should accomplish the objectives set forth by various individuals and groups. The goals of education have been formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918), the Educational Policies Commission (1938), the Rockefeller Brothers Fund (1958), Gardner (1960), the National Education Association (1964), and others.

Gagné (1965) indicates that there is a consistency in the goals emphasized by these groups to the extent that education has these purposes:

1. Developing individuals' talents so that they may achieve satisfaction in a life work or vocation
2. Developing responsible citizenship
3. Making it possible for the individual to participate in and share with others a variety of aesthetic experiences.

Perhaps as important as the goals themselves is that advances in educational technology, greater sophistication and "know how" in research, more widespread use of computers, and the availability of funds for research are now enabling educational research specialists to measure student progress toward those goals. Great strides in office education are currently being made in this direction. Funding for a research project to encompass these dimensions and others is being sought by a committee of business educators under the sponsorship of Delta Pi Epsilon.

Known as the "New" Office Education Learnings System (NOELS), the system model to be developed and tested contains design criteria which cause the model to be consistent with general objectives of the total system of education, of which office education is a sub-system. The design criteria generate performance goals for students as well as instructional strategies for use with students in producing economic citizens who can get and hold jobs within office systems.

Pilot projects associated with the major research effort include determining the requirements of office workers in specific job clusters. These job requirements, including both social roles and specific job functions, are to serve as the basis for the formulation of performance goals. That is, the process results in a statement of job requirements in *specific, measurable* terms. A performance goal includes: (a) a statement of the task to be performed; (b) a statement of the conditions under which the task is performed; (c) a statement of the *specific, measurable* criteria for determining extent of success or failure of task accomplishment; and (d) a statement of the rationale for learning or accomplishing the task. An essential element of performance goals is that *they must be measurable.* An initial reaction of many readers will undoubtedly be a feeling that there are job requirements which cannot be quantified. However, the significant point is that there are measurable job requirements that have never been measured and are not now being measured.

While the research proposed here relates to work in office education, related studies in general education areas are expected to be forthcoming. Active interest is taking place specifically in the areas of communication, social studies, and mathematics.

Relevance of Performance Goals

What do performance goals have to do with the general education of business students? There is no reason for limiting to business students the instruction aimed at accomplishing the goals. There is a strong likelihood that the social roles to be performed in life by business students will not be appreciably different from the social roles to be performed in life by other students. Performance goals associated with the educational goal of "developing responsible citizenship" are probably common to most people even though there may be levels of "responsible citizenship" resulting from differences in ability. Krathwohl and Bloom's "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives," describing the cognitive domain and affective domain in separate volumes, provides a classification for the various elements of this one goal.

What impact will the development of performance goals have on the general education of all students? One of the inherent characteristics of the systems approach to curriculum development is the self-correcting aspect. Throughout the analysis and demonstration project, provision is made for testing the system. Where consequences are not desirable in terms of the design criteria, modifications are made in the system to correct it. The same characteristic holds true for instructional strategies used in the analysis and demonstration project.

Other characteristics include expected outcomes with advantages accruing to the student and, in turn, to society. In looking at instructional strategies and how these strategies are related to performance goals, one can expect that: (a) the student will be motivated when he knows specifically what task he is expected to perform; (b) the student will better understand the task when he knows the conditions under which the task is to be performed; (c) the student will be motivated even more (rewarded/reinforced) when the extent of success or failure in accomplishing the task is known; and (d) the student will be motivated still more when he knows the rationale, or the *why,* for his performance of that task.

Another characteristic inherent in the system is the expected facility with which a student may progress through it, learning at *his* pace, eliminating those facets of the system where he already meets the criteria established in the performance goals, and giving additional time as necessary for mastery of tasks in which he has not reached the specified criterion level for successful performance. This latter characteristic of the systems approach takes on one of the advantages inherent in the ungraded school. Of greatest significance, however, is the expected advantage of having a curriculum which has its foundation in life-related performance goals.

A CURRICULUM PATTERN—PURPOSE-CENTERED

What curriculum pattern best fulfills the general education needs of business students? What follows is a relatively new idea in curriculum organization that emphasizes individual achievement as the central purpose of the school. All learning experiences in each of the subject fields are derived from the avowed purposes of the school. In effect, the purposes of the school would certainly include those cited earlier in this chapter.

Having decided on a set of purposes, the content of each area is based upon these purposes. For example, the content in the English curriculum is determined by evaluating the specific contributions that English can make toward the achievement of the purposes of the school. Traditional content that does not appear to contribute to the achievement of the purposes is omitted. Using their knowledge of learning theory, the English teachers organize the English curriculum in terms of a certain number of years of English rather than specific *courses* in English. Since it is quite possible for a student in the ninth grade to need English he usually meets in the eleventh grade, the curriculum is so organized that this particular student is able to study at what is usually called the eleventh-grade level. The reverse can also occur.

The basic curriculum development procedure is the same for each subject area. The sequence of curriculum content is organized on the basis of what each student requires rather than in terms of a sequence into which each student progresses on the basis of his chronological age. A curriculum is developed for each student rather than the generally accepted practice of placing a student into a curriculum.

The problem has been one of putting this theory into practice, and it will likely remain a problem in most areas for some time. Yet, the tools for implementing such a theory are available. Without doubt, *all* available instructional media are necessary for its implementation. Partial implementation of the theory has come to pass in the form of team teaching, computer-assisted instruction, programed instruction, the use of teaching assistants, closed-circuit television, the use of recording and listening devices, the use of modular scheduling, and so on. The ungraded school is a direct movement toward a purpose-centered curriculum.

The purpose-centered curriculum appears committed to a genuine consideration of differences among individuals, and its development will make it possible to provide an individual program for each student. The integration of the "New" Office Education Learnings System with a curriculum pattern of this type would certainly complement both!

SOME GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF BUSINESS STUDENTS

Perhaps the most important element in the credentials of an entry worker is the depth and breadth of his "general education" knowledges and skills derived from twelve years in school. After all, his twelve years of school generally allot approximately eighty-eight percent of his in-school time to "general education" experiences and twelve percent to "vocational" experiences. This one observation serves then as the basis for formulating some principles which should help shape the general education of business students.

The Principle of Participation

All school personnel must participate directly in preparing business students for their business careers. Since the greatest proportion of the business student's in-school time is spent in general education preparation for the world of work, it appears reasonable that there must be meaningful involvement by school personnel other than business teachers in direct preparation of the student for his specific occupation or the specific cluster of jobs in which he seeks employment. The teacher of English must be cognizant of the specific language skills required of the stenographer, of the specific speech skills required of the appliance or cosmetics salesman, of the specific reading, proofreading, and spelling skills required of the clerk-typist, and of the specific kinds of writing skills required in different job clusters. The English teacher's effectiveness in working with a business student can only grow when the experiences provided for the student have a meaningful association with his occupational choice. It may be wise to include required reading for book reports from areas other than the classics if students are to have a favorable set toward reading as a skill, as a tool for acquiring knowledge, and as a medium for purposeful leisure time. Librarians and social studies teachers have no smaller role if the needs of all young people are to be met. Their direct participation in working with the business teacher in planning meaningful learning experiences is necessary. The physical [illegible] in giving specific instruction aimed at developing appreciations and practices in good body posture, good body carriage, proper diet, and good personal hygiene. While these learnings are applicable to daily living for all, direct reference to the work place makes the learnings more meaningful to the student. The learning experiences provided must be individualized to a greater extent. A single teacher from one discipline cannot do all of it; the business teacher must exercise the leadership in getting *all* school personnel to participate directly in preparing business students for their business careers.

The Principle of Meaningfulness

All learning experiences of the student must be planned in such a way that the individual learner finds meaning for himself and his life's work. The general education experiences of a student must be meaningful to the extent that the student sees the objectives in terms of fulfilling a need. He must enjoy the experiences if he is to have the proper set toward that which is being learned. Reward and reinforcement create that built-in desire for depth learning of a given subject or that built-in desire for learning in a related or different area. It might be said that the reinforcement arising from a satisfactory learning experience is the most valuable asset that the student has for additional learning. It may be called "the desire to learn," and it certainly has some relevance to the adage that "one can do anything he wants if he wants to do it badly enough." It may be more beneficial for some students to interpret a financial statement than to attempt an interpretation of contemporary poetry which may be beyond their levels of comprehension. It may be more beneficial for some students to do a special project on the history of the industry in which they expect to work than to write a paper on some historical personage whose work was remote from the interests of some of the students. A student who has plans to work for an insurance company after graduation from high school may derive the greater benefit from preparing a research paper on the different kinds of life insurance coverage available. To assign such a topic to all students would defy the principle. Some students have the aptitudes, skills, and interests for interpreting contemporary poetry; some have the aptitudes, skills, and interests for a depth study of British history; many other students do not. Certainly, activities must be planned with the individual interests of the students in mind. Adherence to the principle by *all* school personnel can make learning experiences more meaningful for all students. Adherence to the principle can help the potential dropout find direction; it can enrich the preparation of the vocational students; and it provides opportunities to the college-bound student for a greater quantity and quality of learning experiences.

The Principle of Flexibility

All courses and curriculums should be organized in a way that is sufficiently flexible for supplementing and complementing the abilities, socio-economic backgrounds, and interests of all students. The states and regional accrediting associations have minimum standards for both elementary and secondary schools, and these standards often prescribe a given number of years of English, a given number of years of history and/or social studies, a given number of years of mathematics, and so on. While these requirements are necessary, one is often left to wonder about the interpretation and administration of these requirements in curriculum planning. Should the content, the number of credits, and the kinds of learning experiences be the same for all students? Is the sometimes inflexible administration of this requirement the reason for some dropout problems? Is it possible that the same attention might be given to programs for under-achievers, slow learners, or the culturally deprived as might be given to advanced placement programs for the college or university-bound student? Don't the problems of riot-torn cities pose a problem equal to that posed to the United States by the launching of Sputnik? What are the characteristics of rioters and looters? Why wasn't the United States first in launching a Sputnik? It was generally thought that instruction in the sciences left something to be desired. It may be assumed also that educational programs leave something to be desired if "unemployed," "culturally deprived," "ghetto," "dropout," and "illiterate" are the labels attached to those directly involved in the riots. Perhaps a joint effort of specialists in vocational and general education is necessary if school leavers are to be prepared for acceptable economic and social roles in their homes and in their communities. A general "watering down" of courses is not implied here. The point is that course and curriculum requirements should have built-in provisions for all ability, socio-economic, and interest levels. The prospective chemist should have enough instruction in typewriting to gain skill sufficient for his personal use rather than instruction to put him at a skill level sufficient for employment as a statistical typist. The prospective clerk-typist should have enough learning experiences in science to understand his natural environment and some of the phenomena derived from that environment by man rather than instruction sufficient for having him placed in advanced science courses at the state university. Perhaps some of the needed course and curriculum differences can be accounted for in modular scheduling, programed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, and the use of teachers' aides. Where content of specific courses may necessarily be the same for all ability, socio-economic, and interest levels, instruction at the different levels can be effective for all students with variances provided in pace of instruction and depth of subject matter. Continued developments in educational technology will provide a large part of the wherewithal for making courses and curriculums more flexible. Leadership for implementing the available technology is perhaps the most crucial need.

The Principle of Student Involvement

All students should be involved in a reasonable combination of purposeful co-curricular and extracurricular activities of the school. A characteristic common to many school dropouts is a lack of identification in the school with a teacher or teachers, administrators, counselors, and/or other students through clubs or athletic activities. To be sure, no club or organization can tolerate much "dead wood," but a worthwhile organization must be challenged to make "live wood" of the "dead wood." Certainly a student's attendance at a first meeting is an indication that he has an interest in the group; he wants to know what he can contribute to it and what he can gain from it. If he goes unnoticed, if his questions are ignored or squelched, he may never voluntarily return to that group or any other extracurricular or co-curricular group meeting. A recent article in a small-town newspaper related an interview with the advisor and the editor of the local high school's yearbook which had won honors in interscholastic competition. In response to the reporter's questions about how they won the honor, the advisor said that he "allowed only 'A' and 'B' students to be on his yearbook staff." To be sure, this was a worthwhile learning experience for the "A" and "B" students, and it probably made the advisor's work easier. But what is the significance of the yearbook to that great number of students who didn't have "A's" and "B's"? What would happen if all student activities were selective to this extent? What would happen in the "real world" if the Parent-Teacher Associations, the Kiwanis Clubs, Rotary Clubs, the League of Women Voters, volunteer firemen, and other civic groups set similar requirements for membership? Most groups must have some membership requirements, but these requirements should not be stringent to the extent that the purposes of the school are defeated.

NICHOLS ON "THE PLACE OF ACADEMIC SUBJECTS"

Having exposed some observations on what the general education of business students should be in the present and future time, it is perhaps worthwhile now to look at what was prescribed earlier as "the place of academic subjects" in the business curriculum. Food for thought definitely exists in the observations of Frederick G. Nichols (1933).[1] His points were:

1. No commercial curriculum can include all worthwhile academic subjects and retain its distinctive characteristic as business education.
2. Having in mind the fundamental aims of secondary education in general and of high school commercial education in particular, all available

---

[1] Nichols, Frederick G. *Commercial Education in the High School.* New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1933. pp. 422-423.

academic subjects should be considered on their merits with a view to selecting those of highest relative value in such a curriculum.

3. In deciding what subjects to include and what to omit, due consideration should be given to the character of work being done in each subject to insure the choice of modernized courses which are likely to contribute to the desirable outcomes of high school training for vocationally-minded pupils.
4. Just how much of subjects so chosen should be included will depend on the degree in which they have been modernized and the aptitudes, interests, and abilities of the pupils who will take them.
5. Every effort should be made to require the full offering of English without modification unless courses in this subject are wholly unsuitable for non-college-preparatory pupils; but the inclusion of this much English should not be taken to mean that it is largely on vocational grounds.
6. The full offering of social science should be required unless it is of the traditional history type; in which case the social-business subjects should be regarded as the essential social-science content of the curriculum. A modern program of social science can be justified on vocational as well as on social and civic grounds, since business is a social enterprise requiring social understanding as well as technical knowledge and skill.
7. No foreign language should be required; but commercial pupils who are interested in this study should be permitted to elect it if they care to do so after being fully appraised of the fact that if begun it should be continued through two or more years and that if so continued it will preempt a large share of their time and crowd out other academic, technical, or social-business subjects perhaps to their disadvantage.
8. A single year of "composite," or "general" mathematics, if available in the ninth year or earlier, should be required; other mathematics should be elective.
9. A single year of general science, if available in the ninth year, should be required; other science subjects should be elective.
10. Since certain modernized academic subjects are admitted to the high school commercial curriculum as required subjects it is evident that the claim for a core of such work, in varying amounts, is sound.
11. These tentative conclusions are not presented as having been fully justified by the brief discussion on which they are based. They are intended to stimulate thought and scientific research and to indicate a point of view which may be helpful temporarily in dealing with high school commercial curriculum problems.

There can be no real argument with Nichols on "the place of academic subjects." However, there appears to be a definite need for strong constructive rapport in the various learning disciplines if the schools are to improve the quality of their outputs. Certainly, no one discipline can ever hope to succeed alone in developing students' talents so they may achieve satisfaction in a life work or in developing responsible citizenship.

SUMMARY

The general education of business students is perhaps more important to the student than his specialized learning experiences. These general education knowledges and skills are necessities common to all citizens, regardless of life work or vocation. This has always been true, and it will continue to be true. The "New" Office Education Learnings System project represents an initial step. Similar projects in communications, mathematics, and social studies will help define further the performance goals directed at fulfilling the goals of education.

Business teachers must exercise leadership in getting *all* school personnel involved in office education; *all* school personnel must seek new ways for giving meaning to the learning experiences; *all* school personnel must seek ways to improve the sequencing and the content of learning experiences for students with varying abilities and backgrounds; *all* school personnel should seek active participation by students in one or more co-curricular or extracurricular activities. A purpose-centered curriculum for each student appears to be important. Computers can help perfect it. Modular scheduling has its advantages. All the new and emerging educational technology will help.

SELECTED REFERENCES

BLOOM, BENJAMIN S., and OTHERS. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.* Handbook I: *Cognitive Domain.* New York: David McKay Co., 1956.

FRENCH, WILL, and OTHERS. *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957.

FROELICH, CLIFFORD P., and DARLEY, JOHN G. *Studying Students.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953.

GAGNÉ, ROBERT M. "The Implications of Instructional Objectives for Learning." (Edited by C. M. Lindvall.) *Defining Educational Objectives.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1964. Chapter 4.

GOODMAN, PAUL. *Compulsory Mis-education.* New York: Horizon Press, 1964.

KRATHWOHL, DAVID R., and OTHERS. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.* Handbook II: *Affective Domain.* New York: David McKay Co., 1964.

NICHOLS, FREDERICK G. *Commercial Education in the High School.* New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1933.

II

Area Vocational and Technical Schools

Chapter 23

Strengths of the Past and Present

WALTER A. CHOJNOWSKI, Wisconsin State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education, Madison

An area vocational-technical school means any public school or any public institution whose facilities shall include the following:

1. A school used exclusively or principally for the provision of vocational-technical education for persons who have completed or left high school and are available for full-time study in preparing to enter the labor market.
2. A division or department of a community college, junior college or state university which, under the supervision of the State Board of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, provides vocational education in various occupational fields leading to immediate employment, but not leading to a bachelor's degree. This phase of education is called "terminal education."
3. In several states it also designates a specialized high school used exclusively for the provision of vocational education for persons who are available for full-time study in preparation for entering the labor market. It can also be a department of a high school used exclusively or principally for providing vocational education for persons who are available for full-time study in preparation for entering the labor market. The author will deal with aspects of the first two—those on the adult or post-secondary level.

The orderly development of area technical schools in a state rests primarily on three basic essentials: (a) sound enabling legislation, (b) adequate criteria for establishment, and (c) a logical and procedural method for this development.

Lacking any of these essentials any development will tend to be spasmodic, uncertain, and emergency in nature. Sound enabling legislation is essential to the proper growth, development, and service of the school. Area vocational-technical schools must be supported by legislation which authorizes adequate financing, a definite role for the school and its administration, and a population service base adequate to insure enrollment in sufficient numbers.

The adequate criteria for establishing schools is essential if the school is to be the size and scope to develop and offer necessary educational programs. In area development in various states, it is noted that minimum population, financial base, and area should be provided. This has been noted in area development in such states as Iowa, Georgia, Connecticut, North Carolina, Oregon, and Wisconsin.

VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL AREA SCHOOLS TODAY

Georgia

Atlanta Area Vocational-Technical School, Atlanta, Georgia, offers technical training in the health and business education programs. This school is designed to accommodate 4,000 day and evening students. Two vocational-technical schools have been in operation a number of years. Twelve new area schools have been opened recently. Fifteen additional area schools have been approved by the state board of education and are in the planning stages. The building programs involve state and local funds which will amount to approximately some $20,000,000.

South Carolina

Nine area vocational-technical institutes have been approved by the state committee for technical education, and one in Greenville is now operating at capacity. Five centers are scheduled to be opened shortly with more to follow. The centers are built as community projects, with the communities providing at least 87 percent of the cost and the states 13 percent.

Minnesota

The area vocational-technical schools now number 15. Minnesota now has these schools in all geographical areas except the southwest, where one school will be started at an early date. All area schools provide vocational-technical programs at both the high school and post-secondary level.

Pennsylvania

Surveys have been made in the Greater Pittsburgh area with the state employment service on the kinds of skills now needed in the Pittsburgh area. Respondents to the questionnaire indicate that 33 percent of future job placements will require one to three years of post-high school training, 24 percent will require four years of college training or more, 23 percent will require high school graduation, and 6 percent will not require a high school diploma.

Washington

Of twenty area schools in Washington which offer post-secondary vocational-technical programs, thirteen are community colleges and seven are vocational-technical schools. It is estimated that these schools supply one-third of the technicians needed in the state. A substantial increase in technical programs is planned, and it is anticipated that the community colleges and technical institutes will increase their technical program offerings approximately 200 percent.

New Mexico

New Mexico presently has six centers offering training in technical education. These programs are post-secondary and are at the paraprofessional level in developing the individual and education attitudes and competency. Albuquerque Technical Institute offers a wide range of programs. Currently there are approximately 3,100 students enrolled in the following areas: accounting, business administration, advanced data processing, automotive body and fender, automotive mechanics, drafting technology, electronic technology, machine tool, office education, practical nursing, and welding.

Wisconsin

Presently there are 15 area vocational-technical schools. The state board of vocational, technical, and adult education has authorized 18 vocational-technical school districts. Some districts may have one or more area vocational-technical centers. Enrollments in office and distributive classes have been increasing at a rate of 25 percent per year. It is anticipated that there will be need for 100 percent increase in faculty within three years, with another like increase in the following years.

Grant Venn in his book—*Man, Education and Work*—recognizes the place of importance of area vocational-technical education. He indicates that it is the most recent significant addition to the American education effort. The growth and development of this area in the past twenty years has assumed a separate identity to permit discussions apart from the traditional high school program. Moreover, the term "technical" has been gaining greater acceptance to describe the broad range of the middle level of occupations. Many of the new emerging occupations are not served by professional study. These include data processing, the office services, health occupations, and graphic arts and sciences. All these are of a technical level, having relatively common educational requisites, requirements, and educational preparation that is typically more vigorous and theoretical than that normally thought of for traditional vocational education. Full recognition of the importance and broad sweep of technical occupations within the economy has to be achieved. Vocational-technical education finds itself today in a position similar to that of basic vocational education some fifty years ago. The history of vocational education should suggest to all the importance of a vigorous, imaginative approach to the educational needs of vocational-technical occupations which can be best served by the area vocational-technical schools. There are approximately 100 area vocational-technical institutes operating in the various states presently. All are state technical institutes, with the exception of fifteen municipal technical institutes in Wisconsin. The states in which technical institutes are located are these: Connecticut, 3; Georgia, 14; New Hampshire, 2; New York, 6; South Carolina, 14; North Carolina, 21; Tennessee, 1; Iowa, 12; Oregon, 1; Vermont, 1; Wisconsin, 15; Washington, 7; and Minnesota, 15. The area vocational-technical institute represents approximately 8 to 9 percent of publicly supported two-year colleges and institutions at the present time. It is anticipated that the number of school enrollments will increase tremendously in the future.

PHILOSOPHY OF POST-SECONDARY BUSINESS EDUCATION

The search for more complete and broader patterns of training for high school graduates not planning to continue their academic training has indicated the need for a new approach to the problem.

The establishment of post-secondary business education appears to be the most logical solution to this need for broader and more complete patterns of training. The course offerings in the business education departments are so designated that more general subjects take on occupational significance in training youth to understand its place in our social, political, and economic structure while technical subjects provide freedom to prepare for a job.

The function of these post-secondary school business education departments, then, is to prepare young people to live in a world of new inventions and technical processes, to achieve greater success in the satisfaction of human wants, and to meet new demands for competence in citizenship and community living. These technical departments will, therefore, be charged with the task of combining technical training with a general education. An adequate balance should be maintained between training that leads to occupational competence and that which leads to a full appreciation of the responsibilities of citizenship and community living. Objectives of post-secondary business education are:

1. To orient and acquaint the individual with various types of business positions commensurate with his abilities
2. To initiate, re-emphasize, integrate, augment, and maintain previous knowledge and skills
3. To continue the general education of the individual to enable him to make a better contribution to the society that surrounds him
4. To provide information that will enable the student to develop a greater occupational intelligence
5. To interpret the various concepts of personality necessary to be successful in the business world
6. To prepare him adequately to enter gainful employment as a worker in one or more of the various areas of commercial enterprise.

Deploring the frequent downgrading of the para-professional education programs, a spokesman for America's junior colleges declared that such programs may be the best avenues to career success for as many as two-thirds of all high school graduates. Many young people of average and superior ability may find occupational education opportunities more attractive in terms of their own individual interests and aspirations. This opportunity is afforded in area vocational-technical schools. Occupational programs for study are offered which prepare young men and women for technical and para-professional positions in business, industry, government, and service fields. They are specific and they are designed to train a person for a specific job opportunity. In our traditional high school and collegiate programs, training has been designed to train our young people for a broad range of occupations with the idea that they can learn specific job information and requirements when employed. Superficial studies have been made by educators and administrators of job requirements and necessary skills for entry employment in specific fields of work. Broad-range curriculums composed of current offerings with the addition of a few new courses have been offered to students. One may question the advisability of limiting or restricting the curriculum offerings in this manner. As one compares the job placement and holding power of students trained in area vocational-technical schools with those graduates of the traditional general field training, one becomes readily aware of an overwhelming difference. Area vocational-technical school graduates obtain jobs in areas for which they have trained and continue in them for longer spans of time.

Let us examine briefly the broad range of office programs which are offered in area vocational-technical schools. They include such areas as advertising, commercial art, airline reservation and ticketing, front office procedures, insurance, consumer credit, real estate, merchandising, petroleum marketing, wholesaling, general clerical, tabulating machine operation, business data processing, office machine, medical executive, and legal secretarial training—to mention but a few. One notes that all these programs are job or occupation oriented.

THE LOGICAL AND APPROPRIATE METHOD FOR DEVELOPMENT

Area vocational schools must gear their program offerings to meet local area and community employment needs. While there is some justification for serving the state and national needs, this should be of secondary importance to serving the local community needs. The tendency of schools is to serve the national needs, as they are more easily identified. School authorities should recognize the specific occupational opportunities within their areas and regions, identify the training necessary for employment, and make this training available to youth and adults in the community.

Vocational-technical education is a new level of education in keeping up with our technological revolution and in meeting the changing needs of both people and industry. This new level of education is planned to prepare para-professional people in two-year, post-secondary programs to support the professional people in business, engineering, agriculture, distribution, health, and public service occupations. Such para-professionals cannot be prepared in a high school program, but can best be trained in a post-secondary technical program of study. They are taught to work in a team relationship with professional and skilled people.

Vocational-technical education is concerned with the design, development, testing, and supervision of mid-management functions. A person trained in the vocational-technical area does not replace a professional person nor the skilled worker. He does, however, enable these people to work at their highest level of proficiency by providing supporting services to them.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR OCCUPATIONAL CHANGE

The development in every broad occupational group seems to call for even more education and training; and the need for education skill and upgrading will not be confined to curriculums and programs we currently know, but will include many new areas of instruction. The demand for better educated and trained office and distributive workers continues at an accelerating rate. Area vocational-technical schools, recognizing this development, are anxious to develop curriculum offerings to meet these needs. In several states they must follow established patterns for developing new technical program offerings. An illustrated procedure for the development of new technical programs in Wisconsin vocational, technical, and adult Schools is as follows:

1. A designated area vocational-technical school submits a letter to the State Director of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education suggesting that the school wishes to establish a given program.

2. A letter will be sent from the State Director to the school advising them to proceed with a thorough study of the school's capability to produce such a program or advising them not to proceed.

3. Upon approval by the State Director to proceed, a center will develop a basic proposal for a new program. The proposal will include (a) philosophy of the school, (b) need and purpose, (c) foundation for the program, (d) curriculum course outlines, (e) students, (f) additional requirements, (g) service, and (h) projections and conclusions
4. Letter requesting development approval with supporting proposal is directed to the State Board.
5. Letter advising the center of the action taken by the State Board and Coordinating Committee on Higher Education will follow if so approved.
6. Program development takes place.
7. Evaluation of program is scheduled during its second year.

In planning the policies for accrediting a technical institute program, the State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education will use such assistance as deemed necessary in determining a local program's fitness for accreditation as a technical institute program. Utilizing an evaluation team of three to six members, the area vocational-technical school's program will be evaluated. Using an evaluation instrument, the team will review the following items:

1. Objectives and purposes of the program under consideration
2. The need for the program in the area served by the school
3. Compliance with minimum state standards for the program, such as (a) curriculum, (b) course outlines, (c) instruction, and (d) physical facilities
4. Supervision and administration of the program
5. Teachers: (a) qualifications, (b) teaching load, (c) instruction, and (d) professonal activities
6. Program advisory committee: (a) membership and (b) activities
7. Students: (a) selection, (b) guidance and counseling, (c) placement, and (d) extra-curricular activities
8. Plans for future program development.

The evaluation team then will make recommendations to the State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education. These recommendations may state that the program should be approved as meeting the prescribed standards or that the program be re-evaluated at a latter date contingent on meeting the committee recommendations on the program of instruction. The State Board, acting on the report of the evaluation team, will then authorize the issuance of an associate degree to graduates of this accredited program.

One observes that these steps, though elaborate, call for a great deal of investigation by the school as to the need of the program and the ability to conduct it, and evaluation by the state as to the appropriateness of allowing this school to offer this program. In certain areas of instruction, it is found to be advisable to have one school serve as a pilot before allowing other schools to enter the area; there is also a limited labor market, and it would be economically and educationally unwise to train large numbers of people for a limited number of job opportunities.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Area vocational-technical schools have widely used the services of advisory committees. Advisory committees have helped to (a) establish a close and continual relationship with other educational institutions, (b) recognize the fallacy of establishing arbitrary policies requiring college degrees as a prerequisite for job entry into mid-management positions, (c) provide up-to-date information forecasts on types of personnel which are needed, (d) provide support and participation for on-the-job or internship phases of vocational-technical education, (e) take an active interest in helping place graduates of vocational-technical schools in jobs upon graduation, and (f) assist in helping develop curriculums for specific occupational areas.

Curriculums in business data processing, transportation, import-export, and real estate have been set up in many area vocational schools utilizing these advisory committees. In studying the need for a program in consumer credit education, the author, with the approval of the State Director of State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education, selected a committee composed of Fred Hachetl, former national president, International Consumer Credit Association and controller of Gimbel's Department Store in Milwaukee, Wisconsin; William Blake, executive vice-president, International Consumer Credit Association, St. Louis, Missouri; Abe Hoffman, president, Fifth District of International Consumer Credit Association, chairman of the International Consumer Education Committee and controller of Winkelman's Department Store, Wausau, Wisconsin; Lawrence Hoyt, director, Marathon County Technical Institute, Wausau, Wisconsin; Harland Samson, teacher educator in distributive education, The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin; Ed Schwerin, president, Wisconsin Retail Credit Association, Sheboygan, Wisconsin; and Ed Mace, assistant manager, Madison Credit Bureau, Madison, Wisconsin. In their discussions, they came up with the following statements:

1. Traditional programs do not train people in consumer credit work.
2. Most credit people learn through on-the-job training.
3. Most retailers do over 50 percent of their business on credit.
4. Credit personnel work in retail, professional, financial, and public service organizations.
5. Commercial credit areas are taught in four-year college programs, but consumer credit is not taught on the collegiate level.
6. Department of Commerce and Wisconsin State Employment Service figures showed that a large number of people are employed in consumer work. Based on these findings, they indicated that a two-year program should be set with the following objectives: (a) to prepare people for entry employment in consumer credit and related finance areas, and (b) to prepare people for mid-management positions in consumer credit and related finance.

Because of this need, they assisted in developing a curriculum to train people for consumer credit education positions.

Credit Management—Wausau Technical Institute

First Semester		Third Semester	
Credit I, Financial Institutions	3	Credit III, Case Studies	4
Accounting I	5	Credit Correspondence	3
Communications I	3	Business Law	3
Typewriting I	3	Office Management	3
Mathematics of Finance	3	Elective	2
	17		15
Second Semester		**Fourth Semester**	
Credit II, Operations & Procedures	3	Credit IV, Credit Management	4
Accounting II	5	Economics	3
Communications II	3	Electives	5
Psychology of Human Relations	3	Internship	3
American Institutions	3		15
	17		

Suggested Electives

Credit Procedures	3
Principles of Retailing	3
Computer Concepts	3
Effective Selling	3
Advertising Media	3

The International Consumer Credit Association pledged support for this program and indicated they would send documentary letters to testify to the needs of this program and give whatever cooperation was necessary. Wisconsin Retail Credit Association indicated they would do likewise. Upon review by the State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education, this program was authorized to be started at the Marathon County Technical Institute, Wausau, Wisconsin.

A school may have many such committees serving as consultant groups for various tracks within the business program, as well as within their adult program. Each committee meeting requires valuable time for proper organization and planning, as well as following up on suggested procedures. Personal contacts should be maintained with each advisory member by the school. Membership on such committees should include representatives from all segments of the occupational area, along with civic leaders and community groups.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the area vocational-technical school is based upon the needs and interests of the student, the community, and the total society. It is under constant revision and is not restricted in any particular percentage or course hour requirements for transfer programs offered in the junior college. The curriculum provides specific education to meet vocational professional goals. Instruction is provided, however, in such areas as communication skills, psychology, American institutions or governments, speech, and personality development. In a few area vocational schools, there is a physical education requirement. Area vocational-technical schools usually have all courses dealing with a particular occupational area organized under one department or department chairman. Unlike a junior college or four-year institution, courses dealing with business——such as data processing, economics, business communication, business mathematics, economic geography, statistics——are classified as business courses and are under the direction of the business department.

SAMPLE BUSINESS CURRICULUMS

Computer Technology

This is the glamour curriculum of today's business department. To meet the need of rapidly expanding business organizations, a new generation of computer applications demands trained personnel in this field. Management use of the computer as a tool assumes personnel will be able to produce a competitive quality and volume of data.

TABULATING MACHINE OPERATOR—COLEMAN TECHNICAL INSTITUTE, LA CROSSE, WISCONSIN

First Semester		Second Semester	
Introduction to Data Processing	5	Machine Wiring and Operation	0
Electro-Mechanical Machines	5	Machine Calculation	5
Accounting I	5	Payroll Accounting	3
Business Mathematics	3	Psychology of Human Relations	3
Communication Skills I	3	Communications Skills II	3
Orientation	0	Economics	3
	21		17

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION—DATA PROCESSING—MADISON SCHOOL OF VOCATIONAL, TECHNICAL AND ADULT EDUCATION, MADISON, WISCONSIN

First Year		*Second Year*	
First Semester		First Semester	
Data Processing Mathematics I	3	American Institutions	3
Basic Computer Concepts	3	Computer Programing II	4
Electro-Mechanical Machines	3	Introduction to Programing Systems	3
Accounting I	4	Business Organization and Administration	3
Communication Skills I	3	Electives	3
	16		16
Second Semester		Second Semester	
Data Processing Mathematics II	3	Business Economics	3
Data Processing Applications	3	Data Systems Development and Design	3
Computer Programing I	4	Advanced Computing & Programing Systems	4
Accounting II	4	Business Statistics	3
Communication Skills II	3	Psychology of Human Relations	3
	17		16

Electives	
Governmental Accounting	3
Business Law	3
Principles of Insurance	3
Office and Personnel Management	3
Accounting VI—Cost	3
	15

MARKETING AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

Marketing and/or distributive education provide more job opportunities than any other area today. There is much discussion as to whether this field should be called distributive or marketing. Traditionally, educators have called this area distributive; but when one meets with representatives of the business community, they indicate it is desirable that on a post-secondary level, this area be known as marketing.

RETAILING MAJORS—ROCHESTER INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, ROCHESTER, WISCONSIN

First Year	
Accounting	8
Management (Data Processing and Computer Programing) .	4
Marketing	8
Mathematics	8
Textiles	4
Retail Elective	4
Language and Thought	5
Physical Science	5
Western Civilization	5
Physical Education (Noncredit)	

Second Year	
Management (Principles)	4
Finance	4
Business Law	4
Retail Organization and Management	4
Merchandising	4
Biology	11
Retail Elective	4
Literature	5
Socail Science I	5
Social Science II	5
Physical Education (Noncredit)	

Real Estate—Milwaukee Institute of Technology, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

First Year

First Semester

Mathematics of Business	3
Principles of Real Estate	3
Accounting 1	4
Communication Skills 1	3
Physical Education	1
Basic Economics	3
Orientation	0
	17

Second Semester

Real Estate Law	3
Real Estate Finance	3
Accounting 2	4
Communication Skills 2	3
Psychology of Human Relations	3
Elective	1
	17

Second Year

First Semester

Business Correspondence	3
Real Estate Appraisal	3
Principles of Insurance	3
Income Tax	3
American Institutions	3
Elective	2
	17

Second Semester

Real Estate Selling	3
Property Management	3
Trends and Factors in Real Estate	3
Elective	7
	16

Fashion Merchandising—Kenosha Technical Institute, Kenosha, Wisconsin

First Semester

Marketing I	3
Salesmanship	3
Trends in Fashion Merchandising	3
Composition	3
Accounting I	3
Orientation	5
	17

Second Semester

Marketing II	3
Textiles	2
Economics	3
Business Mathematics	3
Speech	3
Basic Computer Concepts	3
	17

Third Semester

Advertising	3
Merchandising Mathematics	3
Business Law	3
Fashion Modeling and Speech	3
American Institutions	3
Credit Procedures	2
	17

Fourth Semester

Marketing Field Study	3
Sales Management	3
Psychology of Human Relations	3
Techniques of Fashion Buying	3
Display	3
Elective	2
	17

Electives

Advertising II	3
Nontextiles	2
Retailing	3

WHOLESALE (MID-MANAGEMENT) TECHNOLOGY—COLUMBUS AREA TECHNICIAN SCHOOL, COLUMBUS, OHIO

First Year

*First Quarter

Communication Skills I	5
Business Mathematics I	5
Economics I	2
Principles of Marketing I	3
Salesmanship I	3
Introduction to Business I	3
	21

*Second Quarter

Cooperative Employment Program

Third Quarter

Communication Skills II	5
Business Mathematics II	5
Economics II	2
Principles of Marketing II	3
Salesmanship II	3
Introduction to Business II	3
	21

Fourth Quarter

Cooperative Employment Program

Second Year

Fifth Quarter

Communication Skills III	5
Wholesaling I	3
Management I	3
Business Law I	4
Case Study I	3
Principles of Accounting I	3
	21

Sixth Quarter

Cooperative Employment Program

Seventh Quarter

Communication Skills IV	5
Wholesaling II	3
Management II	3
Business Law II	4
Case Study II	3
Principles of Accounting II	3
	21

Eighth Quarter

Cooperative Employment Program

---

* Students in class first quarter—in field experience second quarter. Students in field experience first quarter—in class second quarter, and so on.

ACCOUNTING

Traditionally one thinks of an accountant or a certified public accountant as a college graduate and the bookkeeper as a high school graduate. To identify more properly a person trained in accounting in area vocational-technical schools, it has been suggested that they be identified as accounting technicians. They can assist the professional accountant in collecting and reporting data in large concerns; and in smaller concerns, they can serve as general, payroll, or systems accountant or supervisor.

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION—INDUSTRIAL ACCOUNTING—OSHKOSH TECHNICAL INSTITUTE, OSHKOSH, WISCONSIN

First Semester	
Accounting I	4
Communications Skills I	3
Business Organization and Administration	3
Business Machines	2
Business Math	3
Orientation	0
	15

Second Semester	
Accounting II	4
Communications Skills II	3
Economics	3
Psychology of Human Relations	3
Typewriting I	3
	16

Third Semester	
Accounting III	4
Cost Accounting I	3
Business Law I	3
Electro-Mechanical Data Machines	3
Elective	3
	16

Fourth Semester	
Accounting IV	4
Cost Accounting II	3
Industrial Management	4
American Institutions	3
Elective	3
	17

Electives	
Office and Personnel Management	3
Data Processing Applications	3
Technical Mathematics I	5
Communications IV	3
Business Statistics	5
Introduction to Logic	3
Income Taxation	3
Business Law II	3
Internal Auditing	3
Real Estate	5
Money and Banking	5
Principles of Finance	3

OFFICE MID-MANAGEMENT—ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT

The role of professional administrative management is expanding in all areas of insurance, transportation, traffic, hospital operations, and research. Mid-management technician graduates use their up-to-date business knowledge in supporting the management profession. Technical mid-management graduates provide the necessary support to facilitate the business management functions in our expanding economy.

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION—AGRICULTURAL AND TECHNICAL COLLEGE, COBLESKILL, NEW YORK

Freshman Year		Senior Year	
Freshman English I	3	Social Science	3
Natural Science	3	Retail Merchandising or Salesmanship	3
Health and Physical Education I	1	Intermediate Accounting	3
Psychology	3	Business Law I or Personnel Management	3
Principles of Accounting I	3	Electives	5
Principles of Business	3		
	16		17
Freshman English II	3	Social Science	3
Natural Science	3	Introduction to Data Processing or Federal Income Tax	3
Health and Physical Education II	1	Insurance or Business Law or Advertising	3
Principles of Accounting II	3	Marketing	3
Retail Merchandising or Salesmanship	3	Problems in Business Administration	3
Elective	3	Elective	2
	16		17

SECRETARIAL-STENOGRAPHIC-CLERICAL

Two basic groups are served by area vocational-technical schools in the secretarial, stenographic, and clerical areas.

1. Those desiring to upgrade their training and to receive specialized knowledge in areas such as legal, medical, industrial, and like areas go to the area vocational-technical schools for training.

2. A much larger group are those who for various reasons did not avail themselves of the opportunity for office training while in high school and desire basic skill training in such areas as stenographic, clerical, office machines, and the like. Many were general or college prep students who for reasons of their own are not going on to college or have dropped out.

NINE MONTH STENOGRAPHIC COURSE WITH OFFICE TRAINING— NORTH DAKOTA STATE SCHOOL OF SCIENCE

Fall Quarter		Winter Quarter	
Typewriting	2	Shorthand I	4
Shorthand I	4	Transcription Practice	2
English of Commerce	3	Business Correspondence	4
Secretarial Training	4	Secretarial Training	4
Business Mathematics	4	Dictaphone	1
Orientation	1		

Spring Quarter	
Shorthand I	4
Transcription Practice	2
Secretarial Training	4
Typewriting	4
Elective	4

SECRETARY—FOOTHILL COLLEGE, LOS ALTOS HILLS, CALIFORNIA

First Semester		Third Semester	
Introduction to Business	3	Personal Development	2
Introduction to Data Processing	3	Intermediate Shorthand	4
Introduction to College	1	Business Machines	3
Effective Writing	3	Mathematics	2, 3 or 4
American Government	3	Social Science, Literature or Philosophy Elective	3
Fine Arts Elective	3	Free Elective	1 or 2
Physical Education	½	Physical Education	½
	16½		16½

Second Semester		Fourth Semester	
Business Economics or Principles of Economics	3	Technical Typewriting	3
Intermediate Typewriting	2	Advanced Shorthand and Transcription	4
Elementary Shorthand	4	Office Procedure	3
Survey of Electronics	3	Report Writing	3
Effective Speaking	3	Health	2
Physical Education	½	Physical Education	½
	15½		15½

Clerical—Willmar Community College, Willmar, Minnesota

Clerical Practices	9
Office Machines	9
Typewriting	6
Business Communications	9
Business Mathematics	3
Business Law	3
Introduction to Business	3
Orientation	1
Human Relations	3
	46

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

Most area vocational-technical schools try to provide the same type of facilities and equipment as one would face in today's business offices. The Manpower Development and Training Program has established the need for these facilities in the training of their people for office occupations. State advisory committees and state departments of vocational-technical education have likewise indicated a need for minimum basic standards of facilities and equipment. The following are the minimum basic standards for business administrative post-secondary programs in Wisconsin Vocational, Technical, and Adult Schools.

Here and on the succeeding pages are suggested minimum standards for business administration post-high school two-year programs.

Basic Classroom Requirements

1. Room: Large enough to allow 22 square feet of floor space for each student.
2. Tables: Adequate room for each student.
3. Chairs: One per student.
4. Teacher's Desk: Adequate for instructional purposes.
5. Storage Space: Adequate for storage of educational supplies.
6. Filing Cabinet: One 4 or 5 drawer filing cabinet.
7. Lighting: Comply with rules of Industrial Commission on "School Lighting"—Wisconsin Administrative Code, Section IND 17.01.
8. Soundproofing: Acoustically treated ceiling and wall.
9. Chalkboard: Sufficient wall area for good teaching.

10. Bulletin Board: Sufficient for display and instructional purposes.
11. Audiovisual: These are the suggested minimum aids and facilities: tape recorder, slide projector, sound projector, typewriter, chart stand, flannel board, and camera.
12. Dictionary

Special Room Requirements

Typewriter Room

1. Tables: Adjustable typewriting tables
2. Chairs: Posture-type secretarial chair
3. Timer: One, electric or manual
4. Demonstration stand: One
5. Typewriters: A minimum of 20 late-model standard typewriters; 10 of which should be electric.

Shorthand Room

1. Timer: One, electric or manual
2. Transcription Equipment:
   a. Multiple channel dictation laboratory (minimum 15 stations).
   b. Minimum 8 pieces of electric transcription equipment.

Office Practice (Office Machines)

1. Machines: Chemical and stencil duplicator; eight common adding and calculating machines; transcribing machines; reproduction equipment.

Accounting

1. Machines: two calculating machines.
2. Overhead Projector

Marketing Classroom

1. Laboratory Equipment (Recommened)
   Cash register (suitable for training offered)
   Simulated counter
2. Display window: A window area facing hallway

3. Magazine rack for:
   - a. Trade and business magazines
   - b. Business newspapers
   - c. Consumer reports
4. Paper cutter (preferably 24″)
5. Two drawing boards and T-square
6. Common adding machine
7. Full panel mirror

Display Facilities (Required for Retail Emphasis Program)

1. Water Supply
2. Two modern mannequins
3. Card Holder, T-stands, turn table, and simple display properties
4. Two spotlights and two floodlights
5. Large work table
6. Each school must have at least one of each of the following; with a total combination of not less than five of these items: display cases, platforms, and shadow boxes

Data Processing Machine Requirements

1. Printing aid or paper tape punch with alphanumeric capacity.
2. Sequence sorting machine
3. Punched card interpreter
4. Punch card collator
5. Output printing unit with alphanumeric and accumulating devices to meet full-time report requirements.
6. Computer: 4,000 position core storage—solid state, modular design, card in-put, peripheral storage (option), and air condition (option).

   Recommended but not essential for minimum requirements

   1. Automatic reproducer unit.

One notes that in specific areas a minimum of equipment is needed. In the field of data processing, however, this equipment will run to tens of thousands of dollars. It has been difficult for many traditional business educators to realize the large sums of money needed to provide adequate training. It has been suggested by many that we visit and examine the equipment needed in an electronics classroom, a science classroom, a welding or auto body laboratory; then, in sharp contrast, one observes there is no concern about equipment costs in these areas. Likewise, if we are to provide quality graduates to the business community, we must provide them with adequate learning tools.

TEACHING

The effective and successful operation growth of any department will depend upon the ability and initiative of the administrative, operating, and instructional staff. The administrative or supervisory staff must plan and operate and direct the program and must work as a team to obtain cooperation of supporting industry, the community, and fellow workers. But the key to any good program is the instructional staff. One asks the question: Is there any difference in qualification needed for an instructor in an area vocational-technical school and that of those teaching in a high school or collegiate program?

This question can best be answered by recognizing that in order to train a person for a specific occupational objective, the teacher must be competent and knowledgeable in that occupational field. Enrollment in the vocational-technical courses has been selective. Students have been admitted on the basis of their potential to profit from these offerings. As a result, the experience of most teachers has been that students have been alert, have had the right attitude toward their studies, and seem to have had the characteristics which make them employable. The students' social life is also distinctly different. They come from predominantly disadvantaged areas and low and middle income backgrounds.

The teacher's educational courses in student teaching have seldom prepared them to meet the multiple problems of language development and varying social norms. The teachers, therefore, need specialized training to cope with these and many other aspects of the students they will be contacting.

Teachers of vocational-technical students, if they are to do an effective job, need to have understanding of and experience in skill development, actual job requirements, and the behavior patterns of the students they will be instructing. Many schools are already requiring special in-service courses for vocational-technical instructors. Where possible, special in-service training programs should be set up. Many state departments of vocational-technical education conduct workshops, clinics, and special institutes for these teachers.

Presently, very few teacher training institutions have specialized vocational-technical curriculums. It is the philosophy of many of the business education teacher educators that they should train primarily for the one- or two-teacher high school business education department. They indicate that this is the area in which the largest number of their graduates will be serving. They indicate that the supply of vocational-technical teachers will come from high school teachers who want the challenge of teaching on the post-secondary level. They will receive necessary skills and teaching techniques in their graduate or postgraduate work.

It is the opinion of the author that immediate steps should be taken by teacher training institutions to inaugurate special undergraduate and graduate education programs of study for prospective teachers of post-secondary and collegiate institutions; that this study be in the five areas of business data processing, accounting, marketing, secretarial-stenographic, and clerical and kindred occupations; and that they be trained as specialists in one of these areas. In addition to the educational training, the prospective teachers must secure work experience as part of their educational program or as a result of part-time or summer work. They might consider taking summer jobs in occupations or areas in which they wish to teach. After employment as an instructor, they may continue the practice of occasional summer employment and also arrange periodic visits to industrial-business firms to study their operations to help keep themselves up to date.

Operating personnel in business and industry might be invited to spend several days with the instructors before the start of a school year to go over the curriculum and instructional materials and advise on changes or updating which should be made. Vocational educators must be alert to new emerging occupational opportunities which keep opening up. They must permit flexibility in their teaching in order to eliminate obsolete standards, procedures, and methods and be constantly ready to revise their curriculum after proper study.

School officials and business leaders serving on school boards must recognize the need to establish a salary differential between instructors with a bachelor's degree and limited work experience and those with a bachelor's and master's degree in specialized areas and years of business experience. Recognition should be given to persons for their specialized training and work experience. Many secondary and collegiate institutions do not recognize this experience in placing people on their salary scale. Most of the vocational-technical schools have recognized this differential, but have been handicapped by school boards which are accustomed to placing all emphasis on the educational training rather than considering in part specialized training and practical experience.

The current anticipated shortage of supervisory and instructional staff is startling. One needs only to reflect on the vocational network that is needed to reach all people in all areas of the nation to realize the acuteness of this shortage.

Business should have a keen interest in providing adequate teachers for area vocational-technical schools. With early retirement schedules in the military, in business, and in industrial plants, business and education should provide a bridge at a time prior to retirement of skilled technicians, business managers, and supervisory personnel to prepare them to take that step into teaching. When one realizes the knowledge and experience these representatives of businesses have to offer as instructors, another source of teachers becomes apparent. Business and the community will save money, for the students trained by these people will have skills which, heretofore, they have had to obtain through on-the-job training. The new employee will have desirable techniques and abilities as a result of having this type of instruction.

It is something that management, government, education, and the military forces should seriously consider.

ENTRANCE OR ADMISSION POLICIES

Most area vocational-technical schools have comparable entrance admission policies. Such institutions are established to serve high school graduates or persons who are out of school and are of the same or older age category. This is noted in the following admission policies of three area vocational-technical schools. They are quite similar to those employed by many junior college institutions.

1. Students graduated from high school, or persons of post-high age who are deemed able to profit from instruction, are eligible for admission to the technical institute. All applicants are required to take the College Qualification Test (CQT) plus any other tests related to the program in which they apply.

2. High school graduation or its equivalent as represented by a high school certificate issued by a state department of public instruction. These requirements do not apply to adults seeking a vocational skill for personal advancement.

3. Admission to the degree program is limited to high school graduates or those whose eligibility has been determined by evaluation of previous work experience, education, and the entrance examination.

It might be simply summarized that area vocational-technical education have an open door policy. They will admit all who believe they can profit by the instruction offered. To some the vocational-technical school is called the second-chance school, a second chance for those who were not successful in a collegiate program or did not prepare for work while in high school.

STUDENT COUNSELING

Great emphasis is placed on student counseling by area vocational, technical, and adult schools. Many area technical adult schools have set up counseling divisions with the provision that there is one counselor for every three to four hundred students. They work with the student in many of the following ways: preregistration, orientation, registration, long-term educational planning, credit evaluation for graduation requirement, educational requirements to meet vocational plans, curriculum adjustment, interpretation of test results, and referrals by faculty members. The chief purpose of a school's counseling services is to help the student enter the educational program best for him and to assist him in making adjustments along the way to profit fully from his educational experiences.

Faculty members are also assigned as advisors to help with personal, academic, and occupational problems.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Work experience is not employed as much in area technical-vocational schools as it is in the cooperative education programs in high school, but it may be an important part of many schools' curriculum. Sometimes schools employ the use of the term *internship* rather than on-the-job or work experience or cooperative training. The student is allowed to earn certain amounts of credit for this employment or assignment.

Safeguards must be provided in initiating work experience (internship). (a) The community must be adequately surveyed to determine the availability of job training opportunities, (b) An understanding of the work experience program is held by the cooperating business establishments and personnel, (c) An advisory committee should assist in developing the scope and operation of the curriculum work experience and related items.

Care should be exercised to see that the number of on-the-job trainees does not become so large as to hamper the supervision and advising function of the coordinating or supervising instructor. Many of the training positions may be far removed from the area technical and adult school, especially during the summer months or if the school has a proportionate time on-campus and off-campus as part of its training program.

RELATIONSHIP WITH HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Area vocational-technical schools, their programs being primarily terminal, do present some overlap with high school and collegiate programs. One recognizes that in developing a career curriculum for a specialty area of instruction, some of these areas might have been taught in the high school and would be taught in a collegiate institution.

Courses such as beginning shorthand, typewriting and filing (which are taught in high school) are offered in an area vocational school. They are offered because the students who did not take these courses while in high school are offered the opportunity to take them in an area school. Most technical schools recognize earlier training taken in high school and, accordingly, students are placed in courses at their level of achievement or attainment. They are given the opportunity to substitute specialized and advanced courses so that they can meet graduation requirements.

The main objective of the area vocational-technical school is to prepare students for employment and not for possible admission to a four-year collegiate institution. Accordingly, many of the subjects offered as part of the vocational-technical school offering are comparable to the junior and senior level collegiate offerings. As an illustration, principles of accounting offered in the first year of a vocational-technical accounting program is not offered until the junior year in many of the senior colleges. A student enrolled in a two-year accounting program would take some twenty-four to thirty hours of accounting training, which is more than many four-year institutions offer. Accordingly, if the student desires to continue his education and transfer to a four-year institution, he is presented with two problems: (1) many collegiate institutions do not recognize or give advanced standing to graduates of vocational-technical schools; and (2) several collegiate institutions will not recognize junior or senior level courses taken in an area vocational-technical school, which in many instances may be forty to sixty percent of the credits a student has earned.

Closer cooperation and liaison between vocational-technical schools and collegiate institutions may bring about an answer to these and other matters.

FOLLOW-UP STUDY

Schools providing vocational-technical preparation have not fulfilled their complete responsibility if they do not follow the students on to the job. Follow-up study should provide a basis for analyzing the need for new courses and for improving present courses. Students and employers should be given the opportunity to suggest any curriculum revision. These might include additions, deletions, change in emphasis, and revision of standards. These findings might result in curriculum changes varying from partial change in some areas to total revision in some others. The business department may also continue to render service to former students in securing jobs or in assisting with further training for advancement. It should also cooperate with the adult education vocational-technical programs in providing short refresher or upgrading courses.

The follow-up studies must reach as many graduates and dropouts as possible to be of maximum value to the individual and to the school. Care should be exercised in interpreting the dropout's comments and evaluation. He has information and reactions which aid us in developing curriculums to properly prepare, serve, and inspire more of our students.

LIVING ACCOMMODATIONS

Very few of the technical institutes provide dormitory facilities. Most of the students live in the community or within a commuting distance. Those students who do need living accommodations usually reside in YMCA's, YWCA's, or school-approved private residences in the vicinity of the school.

GRADUATION

Most area vocational-technical schools award an associate degree to those successfully completing a two-year program. Those completing shorter programs are offered a diploma or certificate. The associate degree has been typically identified with the junior college program. Much work has to be done to inform the business community and the general public of the place of the vocational-technical associate degree in the educational system. Presently it is as well known as the warrant officer in the military service, a little-known group between the master sergeant and the second lieutenant. In this regard, it is a challenge to all of us in the total educational spectrum to become better acquainted with the emerging concepts in education: (a) associate degree, (b) paraprofessional, (c) mid-management, (d) vocational-technical institute, and (e) vocational education.

SUMMARY

Area vocational-technical schools are an emerging force in the educational picture. According to all projections, they will be serving a much larger group of individuals than any other post-secondary institution. Whether educators will face the challenge of vocational-technical education remains to be seen. At present emphasis still is focused on the secondary and collegiate programs of instruction. Pilot attempts have been made in several states. It is to be hoped that they will serve as a guide to development in this area of instruction.

Chapter 24

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

ARTHUR L. WALKER, Virginia Vocational Association, Richmond

Any meaningful assessment of the value of area vocational school programs in the past or for the present implies a clear-cut statement of purposes and objectives. Why were these schools established in the first place? How do they differ from the traditional vocational schools in (a) organizational patterns, (b) instructional content and procedures, (c) programing and scheduling, (d) instructional facilities, (e) financing and administration (f) level of content and length of course, and (g) public acceptance?

It is also necessary that we define *area vocational school.* Area seems to have two separate meanings in its relation to vocational schools. Area may and often does refer to a geographical or political subdivision embracing two or more school administrative units, or two or more communities. Such is the concept held by most laymen and perhaps by professional educators before the new meaning introduced by the terms of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210) which defines an area vocational school as five or more vocational programs in the broad field of vocational education. In this new sense an area vocational school may be comprised of five or more segments of a single field of instruction. For example, in the field of business education, a program of job training in (1) stenography, (2) bookkeeping, (3) office machine practice, (4) filing, and (5) data processing offered in a given school plant would constitute an area vocational school within the meaning of the Federal Act of 1963. The field of industrial education, according to the leaders in that field, has more than 50 different job training programs. And according to the taxonomy prescribed by the Business Education Section of the U.S. Office of Education there are no less than thirteen separate areas of job training in the office education program.

Since the authors of the succeeding chapter of this yearbook have provided us with a full and complete statement of the term *area* as used in P.L. 88-210, further delineation is unwarranted here.

LEVEL OF INSTRUCTION

In order to further define our topic, "Weaknesses of Area Vocational Schools: Past and Present," let us look at the current needs of those persons to be served—the immediate future needs of workers in the nation's labor force. Just who needs job skills for entry or for job upgrading? Obviously, the answer is only those who are already in the labor force and those who are preparing for entry at the conclusion of the period of preparation. For all practical purposes, therefore, this assumption would identify only those at age 16 or older—mainly high school juniors and seniors, post-high school students, and adults on the job already. Any or all of these groups may be either part-time or full-time workers.

While we have just used the word *level* to indicate age brackets or school grades of students, the word level like the word area has a double meaning in the field of education. In addition to age or grade status, level is employed to designate the difficulty of subject matter ranging from elementary to the most intricate concepts. And any instructional level may be appropriate for the young high school student or for the mature worker. In either case the content can be simple machine operation or systems analysis—key punch or computer programing. It is obvious then that there are areas and areas, and levels and levels, relating to vocational education in differing situations.

WHAT FOR WHOM?

The English philosopher, Herbert Spencer (1803-1896), has left us his treatise on education which poignantly asks in the first chapter 'What knowledge is of most worth?" Although written more than one hundred years ago, the central conclusions seem to apply as truly to today's circumstances as they did in the mid-nineteenth century. This is particularly so of the following sequence of values which one relates to vocational students.

> It must not suffice to imply directions, it must not suffice simply to think that such or such information will be useful in afterlife, or that this kind of knowledge of more practical value than that; but we must seek out some process of estimating their respective values, so that as far as possible we may positively *know* which are most deserving of attention.
>
> Doubtless the task is difficult—perhaps never to be more than approximately achieved. But, considering the vastness of the interests at stake, its difficulty is no reason for pusillanimously passing it by . . . .
>
> Our first step must obviously be to classify, in order of their importance, the leading kinds of activities which constitute human life. They may be naturally arranged into: 1) Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation; 2) Those activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation; 3) Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of off-springs; 4) Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper, social and political relations; those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.[1]

Yes, as professors Hayden and Lemaster allege in the succeeding chapter, vocational education has suffered a needless stigma, but Spencer's second most important function of all education certainly validates occupational education as an imperative area for most persons.

It remained for Frederick G. Nichols and others, and for Smith-Hughes legislation coming 75 years after Spencer, to make certain that American education provided opportunities for job preparation and for occupational competence. Another half-century elapsed after Smith-Hughes before business education could be recognized in national legislation as a legitimate area of vocational education.

This lag, in large measure, can be charged to the deviation of leadership in business education and their false notion that academic respectability could be achieved only by holding fast to their commitment to academic purity. College entrance requirements have determined, (and regrettably still do) the kind and the extent of education for business, especially in our public secondary schools. Too often, the student's immediate need is sacrificed on the altar of the Carnegie unit, the quarter-hour, and the semester hour even in vocational education. The exception perhaps is in the adult evening school and in the proprietary business school whose functions are recognized as specifically job training.

---

[1] Spencer, Herbert. *Education: Intellectual, Moral, Physical.* New York: D. Appleton and Co. p. 17.

This is not to deny that there is a place for comprehensive programs leading to semiprofessional jobs that would adhere to recognized standards of achievement and standard units of credit. But a case for short units which may be unrelated to credits or accreditation are defensible in many instances. In practice, such blocks of studying may be placed end-to-end so as to comprise a 90- or 180-hour block of instruction which may appropriately earn credit.

MODULAR SCHEDULING

The common practice of devoting a prescribed number of class periods in order to meet the requirement for a Carnegie unit of credit for graduation from secondary schools, or a quarter-hour or a semester-hour in post-high school programs, may very well be out of harmony with the real vocational needs of the student. If the need for the average-ability student of a particular group is 15 clock-hours of instruction, then the time for that unit must be pegged at about 15 hours without regard to credit requirements if we are to do a real honest vocational job. Administrative expediency will, of course, tend to dictate a more or less constant time allotment under a group instructional plan even where substantial provision is made for individualized instruction. Teaching efficiency is increased when several students are working simultaneously on or within a particular block of subject matter, whether at the same point of the block or not. In this situation, the teacher enjoys a higher measure of personal orientation to the work and problems of each individual and the entire class than would be the case with the less homogeneous arrangement.

Modular scheduling may be illustrated in the following diagram assuming three different groups each having a separate job objective, such as (a) stenography, (b) general clerical, and (c) bookkeeping-accounting. It may be safely assumed that there are certain specialized units of instruction which are common to all three of these groups. Examples are instruction on the adding machine, the calculating machine, the duplicating machine, or the key punch machine. The following tabulation is based on the assumption that the specialized general business skills and information and the general education are taught on a double (suc-

EXAMPLE OF MODULAR SCHEDULING

Occupational Group	First Six Week Period			Second Six Week Period			Third Six Week Period			Fourth Six Week Period		
	Double Periods			Double Periods			Double Periods			Double Periods		
	1—2	3—4	5—6	1—2	3—4	5—6	1—2	3—4	5—6	1—2	3—4	5—6
Stenographic	D IF	G Ed	G B Ed	Add-C	G Ed	G B Ed	D-P	G Ed	G B Ed	T-T KP	G Ed	G B Ed
Clerical	G B Ed	D IF	G Ed	G B Ed	Add Calc	G Ed	G B Ed	D-P	G Ed	G B Ed	T-T KP	G Ed
Bookkeeping	G Ed	G B Ed	D IF	G B Ed	G Ed	Add-Calc	G B Ed	G Ed	D-P	G B Ed	G Ed	T-T KP
	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs	60 Hrs

LEGEND: Occupational Group
D—Duplicating Processes
IF—Indexing and Filing
G Ed—General Education Courses
G B Ed—General Business Education as distinguished from Specialized Skill Units
Add-Calc—Adding Machines and Calculators
TT—Technical Typewriting Unit
KP—Key Punch
Total Hours for each Occupational Group in Specialized Units, 240 Hours.

cessive) period basis in a six-period day. The plan is equally adaptable to secondary or post-secondary programs in job training.

PART-TIME JOB INSTRUCTION

Whereas the foregoing illustration suggests full-time student participation, a functional program in job preparation or on-the-job improvement can be provided for specific skills for part-time students. Each of the specialized or general education skills and knowledge units must be open to those who have need. It is to be assumed that these short instructional units will be available in the evening or late afternoon for students who can devote only an hour a day on one or more days a week to occupational training. The unit may consist of only 10, 15, or 20 hours of instruction.

POST-HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

The spectacular growth of vocational schools, vocational-technical schools, and community junior colleges, both public and private, has come about to meet the accelerating demand of business and industry for trained personnel. Both the kind and extent of vocational education reflects, though not always clearly, opinions of employers as to what is precisely needed for their employees. These needs are not always clearly defined because neither businessmen nor professional educators have been able to clearly articulate what the needs of workers are or have been. Both, in a general way, give primary emphasis to those technical and related skills that make for greatest productivity of the worker. The level of instruction ranges all the way from the elementary clerical job to managerial and executive positions.

It is also evident that both business and education have an affinity for academic diplomas and degrees as well as for worker proficiency. The doctor's degree, the CPA certificate, and other similar credentials seem to impart a certain aura of distinction quite apart from the real evidence of leadership potential or actual productivity of the worker. The premium placed upon the formal credential often encourages schools and colleges to overemphasize the program that leads to such a credential and to underemphasize the program that is for terminal purposes. Hence there is an obvious trend for post-high schools, area vocational-technical institutes, and the like to strive to become fully accredited community colleges and junior colleges, whose primary objective is to offer associate in arts degrees and transfer credits for senior colleges and universities.

Now the ostensible objective is credit accumulation required for earning a credential. Worker efficiency and job productivity are purposely or unwittingly relegated to second-place consideration in many of the curriculums of the post-high school technical institutes, and especially community colleges. How often have we seen excellent noncredit programs of vocational education become the "step child" of the academic aristocracy? Such a program may have exceedingly high standards of achievement, but unless it carries credit, it is accorded low respect. In order to rate respectability, the program must be a recognized *discipline*, whatever that may mean. According to Webster's *New International Dictionary, Unabridged*, a *discipline* in this sense is "a branch of knowledge acquired through study and research requiring scholarly training, such as in the fields of art, law, mathematics, science and the classics."

Business administration, and perhaps business education, should certainly qualify as academic disciplines under the definition given above because of well-defined research and systems of thought pertaining to them. However, it seems to be straining an academic point to be concerned too much with membership in such prestigious company when the immediate concern is training for job competence. Productivity as a calculating machine operator, key-punch machine operator, file clerk, or accounting clerk do not smack of an academic discipline. The task may well be one of *training* more than one of *educating* as these terms are commonly understood. The object is qualifying for job performance more than qualifying for a unit of academic credit—if indeed there should be any inconsistency between the two terms.

It may be that occupational preparation is accomplished more effectively in adult evening classes and in the private business schools than in schools concerned primarily with transferability of baccalaureate credit.

AN EXEMPLARY STATE PROGRAM IN POST-HIGH SCHOOL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Let us take one emerging state program as an example of the dual objectives of vocational-technical or community junior colleges where some curriculums serve the terminal objective and others accommodate the demand and need for transferable baccalaureate credits. The terminal programs are characterized by the issuance of diplomas and certificates of performance, whereas the credit courses award the associate in science or the associate in arts degrees which are accepted by colleges and universities for advance study. Some of the junior colleges and all of the vocational-technical schools in Virginia assume that the primary function is direct occupational training. Perhaps there is no better way to define objectives of this particular program than to quote directly from a statement in the *Richmond* (Virginia) *Times Dispatch* on January 21, 1968.

> The adjective used to describe the community college in Virginia is "comprehensive," but it could just as aptly be "utilitarian."
>
> Community colleges mean many things to many people, if not quite all things to all people. The key is "service"—to state, community and business in their needs for technically skilled personnel and good citizens, to youngsters groping for a future, to adults looking for a second career.
>
> The typical community college student is more likely to be found wielding a T-square and pencil in a drafting classroom than conjugating Latin verbs in an ivy-covered quadrangle. Instead of digging the scene in a fraternity lounge, he is apt to be in a car after school, on the way to his part-time job. The car is important because it brings him from home to the no-dormitory community college and back each day.
>
> He is more likely to become a data processing technician than a professor of humanities, but what is special about the community college is that it excludes neither of these ambitions.
>
> Eighty-five percent of Virginia's 10,000 community college students are in studies leading directly, after two years or less of study, to employment. Positions for printers, commercial artists, engineering aides, nurses, secretaries, electronic technicians, architectural aides, bank tellers and many, many other middle-level occupations will be filled by these institutions.
>
> But the other 15 percent who plan to transfer to four-year colleges take university-parallel courses that lead to baccalaureate-degree studies in liberal arts, business administration, teacher education, engineering and science. Color it ABC to Ph.D. The range is from remedial education for the youngster who flunked out of high school to the preparation of a future graduate student.
>
> Virginia, a late entrant when the legislature authorized community colleges in 1966, now has eight of these uniquely American institutions in operation; however, only three are in brand-new facilities. Four others are in varying stages of construction or conversion from old vocational schools. Above and beyond this, the 1968 General Assembly has before it requests for five more new community colleges.

An examination of programs in some other states and communities that have junior colleges or post-secondary schools revealed that approximately 40 percent of the curriculums in such schools are comprised of general education offerings such as writing, literature, science, dramatics, social sciences, humanities, and aesthetics. This is in reasonable harmony with the Virginia program and may be assumed to be fairly representative of post-high school vocational education on a broad base.

WEAKNESSES THAT PERSIST

On the basis of the foregoing quotations and assumptions, the author admits failure in his assignment to make a strong case for "Weaknesses, Past and Present" in vocational and technical schools. However, experience and reasonably extensive observations have, we believe, revealed these weaknesses, some of which are in the process of being corrected.

1. There is the lack of administrative understanding of the need and proper programing for vocational education. Administrative vision in this regard is apparently somewhat obscure due to its prior conditioning and current preoccupation with the academic college preparatory program.

2. There are not enough occupationally oriented teachers. Every vocational teacher should have had valid full-time job experience if he is to interpret job requirements adequately to his students. Vicarious experience is better than none, but not good enough. The late M. D. Mobley of the American Vocational Association told a true story of an agriculture teacher in Georgia who said, "You can't no more teach what you don't know than you can come back from where you ain't been."

3. The lack of specialized and truly functional space and equipment has been a rather severe obstacle to good vocational education, especially in the field of business. The vocational lessons are best learned in an actual or well-simulated situation. Office skills and work procedures are best learned in an office atmosphere with modern office machines and appliances. This weakness is being materially remedied with increased federal funds under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and other federal legislation. In many instances, an entire vocational addition has been built upon the provision of the area vocational school section of P. L. 88-210.

The Business Education Service of the Virginia State Department of Education is vigorously promoting the concept and the implementation of wholly self-contained laboratories for each of the specialized curriculums—stenography, clerical procedures, bookkeeping, data processing—and is aiming toward such an arrangement for all of the distinct occupational fields. Under this arrangement students are taught in a 2- or 3-hour block of time all the skills and work information pertaining to a particular job objective. This allows for a high degree of integration in subject matter on a normal or sequential basis. This seems to be a giant stride in the right direction in office education.

4. There has always been an acute need for more and better counseling prior to a student's entry into an occupational program of studies. Each student should have access to a competent counselor who has had comprehensive occupational experience or study of the major requirements and rewards of any given occupational field.

Following very closely the guidance need is another imperative—job placement and follow-up of all students, whether graduates or those who complete a single unit of study. The feedback from former students is one of the most fruitful sources of information for curriculum development and renewal.

CONCLUSION

A very practical and profound educator who had the responsibility for directing this writer as a state supervisor often observed that academic schools generally tend to move toward a comprehensive basis embracing both academic and practical arts or vocational curriculums. By the same token, specialized vocational schools generally move in the direction of a comprehensive offering embracing a liberal amount of general education. Do we all not observe that the same tendencies obtain today. Should not your school be comprehensive?

Chapter 25

Projections for the Future

CARLOS K. HAYDEN and A. J. LEMASTER, University of Houston,
Houston, Texas

Vocational education encompasses a number of occupation-centered educational services designed to train youth for entry into the labor market, for upgrading the employed, or for retraining those whose skills have become obsolete. It may take the form of a department within a school or college, or it may be a separate school or college.

The history of vocational education is a story of struggle and controversy in making a place for itself in the American educational system. Vocational education has traditionally been the step-child of American educators; only in recent years has it been accorded, often grudgingly, the approval of most elements in education. In early American education, the primary purpose was to give instructions in the classics. Training in and learning of manual skills and trades were accomplished by the handing down of a particular trade or craft from one generation to the next or through the apprenticeship system.

As the schools gradually added vocational areas, these departments were looked upon with disfavor by both educators and students—a blight caused, at least to some degree, by inadequate preparation of early teachers and poorly defined goals. However, preparation for work has generally been considered to be inferior to "academic" education.

Vocational courses have long suffered a needless stigma. It is unfortunate indeed that the term *vocationalism* has mistakenly been associated with anti-intellectualism. And, it is a further shame that business courses have borne the weight of this association. Is it not ironic that a nation priding itself on the dignity of work has taken a negative attitude toward courses which are in any way connected with the development of working ability? General education and vocational education are not at odds and never have been. In truth, vocational education is a specific and vital part of general education, and any course which contributes to vocational competency is certainly contributing to general education.

The reaction to "academic emphasis" in education has been to avoid any direct relationship between academic courses and preparation for a job. Of course this position is untenable, except for the very few who need not be concerned with self-support. Many "liberal" courses have been masked in robes of respectability while training for vocations in one form or another. Are there not strong vocational implications in teaching mathematics to the engineer or economics to the businessman? While both can aid in general education, they certainly contribute to vocational competency.

In the past a pointless view has been that a course "must be first difficult and then disagreeable." Though it has been logically refuted time and again, some educators still contend that the value of a course is directly related to the difficulty with which it is learned. Though entirely beside the point, business courses should satisfy the skeptics along this line. Many hours of both mental and physical effort are necessary to the proper learning of a skill.

A prominent educator once said that if a student had not studied a foreign language, he simply didn't know what he had missed. When one fails to learn a vocation, it becomes all too apparent what he has missed. Learning to work has a definite place in the educational process of learning to live. Vocational and technical education should be treated as any other area.

TYPES OF AREA SCHOOLS

The only significance of being designated and approved as an area vocational school is that under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 Federal funds are limited to use for the construction and/or remodeling of facilities for schools so designated. Other funds under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 may be used for vocational schools and programs, whether or not they are area schools or programs.

Area vocational schools may include:

1. A *specialized* high school *used exclusively or principally* for providing *vocational education* to persons who are available for *full-time study* in *preparation* for entering the labor market.
2. The *department* of a high school exclusively or principally used for providing vocational education in no less than *five different occupational fields* to persons who are available for full-time study in *preparation* for entering the labor market.
3. A *technical* or *vocational school used exclusively or principally* for the provision of *vocational* education by persons *who have completed or left* high school and who are available for full-time study in *preparation* for entering the labor market.
4. The *department* or *division* of a junior college, county college *or* community college, *or* university which provides vocational education in no less than five different *occupational fields,* under the supervision of the state board, leading to *immediate employment* but not leading to a baccalaureate degree.

While area vocational and technical schools include many areas of study, such as mechanics, cosmetology, electronics, and machine shop, this chapter will deal only with those courses related to office occupations.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

Area vocational schools should, of course, be equipped with facilities adequate for teaching their stated courses. In the office area, such equipment as typewriters, calculators, adding machines, posting machines, and key-punch machines are generally accepted as being essential. However, new educational processes and new business machines have caused this list to be lengthened extensively, and few schools boast complete educational facilities for teaching all business courses.

Among the newer machines which students will be facing in the offices are electronic calculators, magnetic-tape typewriters, and increasingly sophisticated computers. The students should have at least some knowledge and experience with these machines.

Among the newer devices for learning are listening laboratories, video recorders, and installations for computer-assisted instruction.

It has been shown through research that shorthand practice from recorded dictation is an effective device for building shorthand speed. It is, therefore, logical that listening laboratories should be provided for shorthand classes. A number of companies have machines available for purchase, varying from single tape recorders to multi-channel devices for broadcasting several tapes at once. Listening laboratories have been used successfully in teaching typewriting and can be used for instruction in many areas, such as business machines, filing, and business mathematics, to name only a few.

Video tape recorders are coming into increasing use in education today and are particularly adaptable to office education. Complete units in typewriting, shorthand, office practice, data processing, and many other areas can be prerecorded and played back for use when the students need them. Provisions for individual differences will reach a new high with the use of video recorders. It appears that television equipment in the classroom is limited only by the imagination of the user.

At present, computer-assisted instruction has been limited to a few schools. Instruction programed for computer use appears to be best suited to the sequential learning process which is inherent in bookkeeping, business mathematics, and computer programing itself. Office instruction should definitely take a leading role in the use of computer-assisted instruction in public education.

SUGGESTIONS FOR OFFICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The technical-vocational school should have as its aim the preparation of students for jobs—a worthy goal. The curriculum should be designed to cover preparation of students for various areas of work. Typical jobs include those of typist, clerk, bookkeeper, stenographer, secretary, salesman, and data processor. Vocational education should prepare the student to take a beginning job and should give him enough skill to advance in that job or to advance to the next higher job. In general terms, vocational competency for entering office positions in the employment community should determine the standards of achievement for office courses.

The curriculums in the area vocational schools will not change greatly in the next few years. For the most part in business education the traditional programs will continue with the present course structure. Most of these programs have emphasized the basic skills and knowledges and will continue to do so since the basic requirements of most jobs have not changed greatly. The greatest changes will come in the data processing area or those areas where highly specialized skills and knowledges are being taught. Changes will be great in data processing programs because of increased application of present technology and the development of new technology in this field.

Basically the existing vocational programs are similar to past programs. Emphasis is on the fundamental skills and knowledges required of beginning office workers. The vocational programs outlined in the publication, *Area Vocational Schools of Georgia*[1], are representative of the majority of the vocational business programs according to a recent research project conducted at the University of Houston to determine trends in vocational education.

Some of the programs are as follows:

> *Data Processing Technology*—Data processing involves programing machines to solve mathematical problems. Subject matter courses include mathematics, accounting, cost accounting, punch-card application, computer application, and economic principles.
>
> Students entering data processing must have completed a high school program which included at least two years of algebra. Other desirable prerequisite courses include geometry, trigonometry, physics, mechanical drawing, typing, accounting, and industrial arts.
>
> *Office Machine Repair*—The course equips students with the necessary skill and knowledge to become service technicians in the rapidly expanding field of office and business machines. In addition to the basic machines such as typewriters and adding machines, the courses place considerable emphasis on new-type calculating machines. Classroom training is given in mathematics (including number systems), physics, electricity, and mechanical and electrical-electronic methods of calculation, and installation of office machines.
>
> For this course preference is given to high school graduates with a good background in mathematics, physics, mechanical drawing, and industrial arts, plus a high degree of manual dexterity.
>
> *Secretarial Science*—This sequence includes three trimesters of shorthand, typewriting, accounting, and office practice. Special emphasis is placed on English for business use with stress on grammar, punctuation, and spelling.
>
> *Clerical*—The clerical option gives preparation for general office jobs. Some of the subjects studied are typewriting, accounting, office machines, business law, business English, and business psychology. Studies include practical experience in using adding machines, electrical calculators,

---

[1] *Area Vocational Schools of Georgia,* 1966. pp. 15, 35, 43, 44.

electronic calculators, comptometers, key punch machines, and duplication equipment.

Punch Card Accounting—Punch card accounting gives a good background in accounting, cost accounting, business mathematics, punch card equipment and computer fundamentals. Students learn to operate all types of unit record equipment, adapt business data to punch card applications, and wire control panels to produce accounting records and reports.

Accounting—This sequence of business education includes typewriting, business law, office machines, economics and accounting. Students receive instruction and practice in office practice and procedure. Accounting instruction includes principles of accounting, cost accounting, and introduction to advance accounting.

Clerical aptitude and ability in arithmetic, spelling, grammar, and reading comprehension are important in the areas of secretarial science, clerical punch card accounting, and accounting. High school graduation is required and helpful high school courses include a thorough knowledge of English, introductory business education courses, and business mathematics.

Many states set up additional standards for students desiring to enter area vocational schools. These standards often include age, residency, and job aspirations. While a valid case can be made for each of these, the logical admission standard is this: Can the student benefit substantially from the courses in this school? If this standard for admission is met, the other requirements should certainly be placed on a secondary basis.

QUALIFICATIONS OF FACULTY

Much of the criticism of vocational education has resulted from a paradox within the field. Teachers in the past who were well prepared educationally often lacked experience in the field in which they taught. And those teachers who had experience in the field were often lacking in educational background. This paradox can be resolved now in many instances by requiring a good general and vocational educational background. In most office occupations today, a properly qualified teacher is not impossible to find. However, in the field of data processing we see the problem emerging again. Those who are best qualified for data processing work are quite often not those best prepared educationally, which leads again to the stigma that vocational education has long worn.

It is the problem of teacher education to provide qualified teachers for vocational fields. The generally accepted background for teachers today is the bachelor's degree, and it appears that sound teacher education programs can be accomplished in the time alloted for completing this degree. It is suggested that area vocational schools adhere to the degree requirements for teachers, with concentrated study in the field in which they are to teach.

PREDICTIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Vocational education will probably not change in stature in the near future. The content of the courses will change radically as innovations occur. When preparing students to enter work, the teacher has no choice but to keep up with changing events. Obviously vocational education for an obsolete field is useless.

A few general predictions for vocational education in the future include these:

1. The emphasis on vocational education will continue for several reasons: (a) increased demand for new workers with technical skills, (b) continued need for retraining workers whose skills have become obsolete due to technological changes in industry, and (c) recognition of the need for highly skilled workers by the federal government and its financial support to develop vocational programs.
2. The major emphasis will continue to be on the development of additional vocational and technical schools. Increased emphasis in some states, however, will be on the strengthening of existing programs and expanding the offerings.
3. There will be little change in the nature of the business education programs with the possible exception of the data processing programs. The other vocational programs are emphasizing primarily basic knowledges and skills, and the need for these knowledges and skills in most office jobs will not change in the near future even though some jobs are discontinued and new ones added. The functions in most cases will remain the same.
4. There will be a great variety of data processing and computer courses added to the high school curriculum as well as to the junior college curriculum. Courses on unit records and machine operation are developing in many high schools now; and as computer applications are simplified, a number of areas will develop in which high school students can excel. Computer programing in some form will likely become a high school course.

5. Enrollments in vocational programs will continue to increase at a rapid rate. This will be true not only in terms of full-time high school and junior college students, but especially in the adult part-time programs. The adult group will be composed largely of individuals whose knowledges and skills have become obsolete because of technological changes which are taking place at an accelerated rate in business and industry.

6. Business training in most post-high school programs, including the adult programs, will be limited to high school graduates or the equivalent, or those who by testing indicate ability to take the training. This practice may be in sharp contrast to the entrance requirements for other vocational areas, but there is a growing realization among many business educators that everyone is not capable of profiting from instruction in the office occupations. Furthermore, there is a minimum level of competency that each individual must achieve in order to be employable in office occupations.

7. The majority of the vocational programs will continue to be offered in comprehensive or multi-purpose high schools, junior colleges, and community colleges rather than institutions devoted exclusively to vocational education.

8. Business subjects which are of a general nature and those that do not require expensive equipment will continue to be offered primarily in the comprehensive or multi-purpose institutions. Area vocational schools will probably assume the major role in developing data processing programs and other programs which require expensive equipment and highly specialized instructional personnel.

9. Some type of regional division will probably be made in all states to make vocational training available on an area basis to students who desire a technical education.

10. Increased emphasis will be given to self-contained or laboratory-type programs in vocational office education. This is desirable because more students could benefit from the improvements brought about through the use of federal funds. At least twice as many students can be served through a laboratory-type program, as compared with a cooperative work-experience type program, with no increase in expenditures for equipment, room facilities, or instructional staff.

11. Audio recorders are in general use now and video recorders will be used to a greater degree in the future.

12. Programed learning by means of texts will be used in learning business mathematics, bookkeeping, computer programing, general business, secretarial procedures, and other areas. Programed audio and video materials will be somewhat slower developing, but will also

take their places in the schools. Computer-assisted instruction, which can be adapted to office courses particuarly well, will probably be some time in coming into general use, but as soon as materials are available, those schools with computers will begin using them.

13. With the boom in technology, the area of machine repair will take on a significance never known before. One company in a major city is currently adding an additional repairman every month in its typewriter division alone.

14. The standards for office courses will continue to be set by the employment community in which the school is located, and this is as it should be. Vocational courses should be designed to meet employment needs in the area served.

CONCLUSIONS

The foolish stigma on vocational education will remain, but to a less exaggerated degree. The recognition by governmental agencies of the vocational areas will definitely have an influence in enhancing the concept of vocational education.

With properly equipped schools available to a majority of the students and with well educated instructors to teach the courses, vocational education will certainly rise in status. However, now as in the past, the true test of a school rests not in its reputation as such, but in its ability to meet the needs of the students and community it serves.

III

Community (Junior) Colleges

Chapter 26

Strengths of the Past and Present

ROBERT J. THOMPSON, Foothill College, Los Altos Hills, California

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The public two-year community college is the fastest-growing segment of education beyond high school in the United States at the present time. Because of its late entry as a part of our nation's total educational society and its rapid expansion in the past decade, its origin, purposes, and structure are probably the least understood of any designated portion of our educational segments by both lay people and educators.

The strength of the community college rests primarily in its historical development, and its aims can best be described by a review of that development.

Two-year colleges, as used in this chapter, can be defined as public junior, comprehensive community, university-connected colleges providing two years—but less than four years—of work beyond high school. The term community college emerges as the name of the movement which has developed out of the junior college progress of the past sixty years or so.

It is the aim of the community college to offer some solution to the extension of education beyond high school to all citizens who qualify. For this reason educators should have some knowledge relative to its past, present, and possible future. The comprehensive community college is dedicated to the varied educational needs of youth and adults beyond high school age.

ORIGIN OF THE PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The "father of the junior college movement" is considered to be William Raney Harper, president of the University of Chicago.[1] He set up a division for freshmen and sophomore work and titled it the "Academic College." The upper two years were given the title of "University College." These names for the two segments were changed to junior and senior college in 1896. The degree of associate of arts was awarded to students who successfully completed the freshmen and sophomore years, or the junior college.

Harper was attempting to find a satisfactory compromise between the four-year college tradition and the German ideal by the installation of his two colleges. Later he was influential in the establishment of junior colleges in the surrounding area. The first was established at Joliet, Illinois, in 1901 as a segment of the secondary school system.[2]

The major obstacle to the development of a system more aligned to the German system was found in the nature of the secondary schools during this period. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, there were many conflicting views and much controversy as to what the secondary school's role was in the educational scheme. It was not until the mid-1920's that they were stabilized.[3]

The upward extension of the high school began at Joliet and moved into Michigan, and Detroit Junior College was formed. Another was established at Goshen, Indiana, but was short-lived. The one at Detroit later became Wayne State University, while the original, established at Joliet, Illinois, is still in existence in that state as a junior college.

More striking examples of upward extension of education and entry into the community college field may be found in California and Mississippi. Mississippi junior colleges resulted from the outgrowth of the county agricultural high schools. Better roads and demands for high schools closer to home, coupled with larger and larger enrollments, forced the discontinuance of county high schools. These then became the "poor man's colleges."[4]

---

[1] Eells, Walter Crosby. *The Junior College*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. p. 47.

[2] Blocker, Clyde E.; Plummer, Robert; and Richardson, Richard. *The Two Year College; A Social Synthesis*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965. p. 25.

[3] Fields, Ralph R. *The Community College Movement*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962. pp. 24-28.

In California the junior colleges resulted from the upward extensions of the high schools. The great distances to the university prompted the legislature to pass a permissive law in 1907 which allowed high schools to offer postgraduate courses which approximated the first two years of university work. Under this permission the first junior college was established in 1910 at Fresno, California.[5]

The broadening of the concept of the two-year college, while slow in coming, was given impetus in California by the passing of legislation in 1917 and in 1921 which provided for vocational and technical courses in the junior colleges. Legal provisions in the legislative acts of 1921 provided for the inclusion of general education; adult education; occupational, vocational, and recreational programs; terminal courses; and community services.[6]

The depression of the 1930's and World War II stimulated rapid growth of the concept of the comprehensive community college across the nation. The problems created by the depression and the increased demands of the veteran's return, as well as the increasing demands of a technical society, created educational demands not being met by other educational institutions in our society. All of these problems served to make federal funds available to the community college and served to stimulate rapid implementation in many states.

The report of the President's Commission on Higher Education made this statement in its 1947 report: "Only a few decades ago, high school education in this country was for the few. Now most of our young people take at least some high school work, and more than half of them graduate from high school."

Until recently college education was for the very few. Now a fifth of our young people continue their education beyond the high school.

Many young people want less than a full four-year college course. The two-year college—that is, the thirteenth and fourteenth years of our educational system—is about as widely needed today as the four-year high school was a few decades ago. Such a college must fit into the community life as the high school has done.

---

[4] Bogue, Jesse Parker. *The Community College.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950. p. 68.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 88.

[6] Blocker, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

Hence, the President's Commission suggests the name "community college" be applied to the institution designed to serve chiefly local community education needs. It may have various forms of organization and may have curriculums of various lengths. Its dominant feature is its "intimate relations to the life of the community it serves." [7]

The recommendations of the President's Commission brought about rapid changes in the structure of many junior colleges, as many of them changed their names to include "community college" and "adult education," and community services became more a part of the total function of the school. Technical education and preprofessional and semiprofessional curriculums became a more significant part of the offerings of these two-year colleges.

GROWTH OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The last sixty years have seen many changes in the organization, purposes, programs, and financing of the two-year college. Growth of this institution in the educational world has been continuous over the years. There were seventy such colleges in 1921, 258 in 1938, 363 in 1955, 403 in 1962, and 565 in 1966.[8]

Enrollments in the past six years have also risen. The enrollment in 1961 was 644,968, by 1966 it had grown to approximately 1,320,000, and it is still growing.[9]

PURPOSES OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Eells describes the many functions and purposes he felt were apparent in the community college movement in the late 1920's. He lists these under four general headings: (1) Popularization of higher education. (2) The preparatory function. (3) The terminal function. (4) The guidance function.[10]

---

[7] Hillway, Tyrus. *The American Two Year College.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958. p. 3.

[8] *Junior College Directory.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1964 and 1966. p. 6.

[9] Gleazer, Edmund J., Jr. "AAJC Approach." *Junior College Journal* 37: 7; April 1967.

[10] Eells, *op. cit.,* pp. 190, 334.

These basic functions have remained, but have been refined, and the additional function of community service has been added to the list as well as having become a very important part of the educational and community program of community colleges.

Blocker lists the educational needs appropriate for a community college to fulfill as including:

1. The need for programs of liberal arts and science, unusual to the first and second years of college, which will provide sound general and preprofessional education of such quality that credits may be transferred to a nationally or regionally accredited four-year college or university and applied toward degrees of the baccalaureate level or higher.
2. The need for vocational and technical programs in the trades and in industrial, agricultural, and semiprofessional fields. Such programs may be of long or short duration, depending on the amount of time needed by the student to complete the requirements for entrance into the occupation.
3. The need for programs for adults and other community college students, for which credit may or may not be given, designed to provide general education and improve self-government, healthful living, understanding of civic and public affairs, avocational growth, constructive use of leisure time, personal and family living satisfactions, and cultural depth, and to facilitate occupational advancement.
4. The need for individual services to students including guidance and counseling, assistance in career selection, removal of deficiencies in preparation for college programs, personality and health improvement.
5. The need for programs and services for individuals and groups interested in cultural, civic, recreational, or other community betterment projects. [11]

Who is served by the junior colleges? The answer is—the entire community. The comprehensive junior college is dedicated to the varied educational needs of youth and adults beyond high school age, both terminal and transfer.

OTHER INFLUENCES ON THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE DEVELOPMENT

While the main force for the development of the two-year college grew out of the early forces which have already been described, there were other forces, especially in the latter years of development, which should be noted. Vocational education and adult education in the United States had a degree of influence on the programs being offered in the community colleges, and some basic philosophy was adapted from the German Fortbildungschule, a German continuation school of a secondary nature concerned with special vocational training which was closely related to apprenticeship training.[12]

---

[11] Blocker, *op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

Vocational education as a part of the curriculum in our public schools was recognized as a need by Benjamin Franklin before the turn of the century. The academies he proposed were to include this type of training.

It took the action of the federal government to set the climate for vocational and technical education to become accepted in colleges throughout the country. The first bill to aid this type of education was the Morill Act of 1862. This act established the land-grant colleges and encouraged the development of the agricultural and mechanical arts. This legislation was followed by a number of additional acts which resulted in a vast expansion of technical education, agricultural extension work, and agricultural research.

It was not until 1917, and the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, that support was specifically aimed at the development of vocational education at the secondary level. In addition to supplying funds for vocational education at this level, the act also provided for the training of teachers in the vocational areas. Because the two-year colleges in most states were under the jurisdiction of the state departments of education, they were considered as secondary schools and qualified under this act.

With the launching of Sputnick in 1957, the American secondary schools were suddenly critically evaluated, the curriculum was redirected in a more classical manner, and science and mathematics became the main focus of attention. In order to accomplish this, many high schools deleted many of their vocational functions and these then became a primary function of the junior colleges. At the same time we found many of the vocational schools becoming more comprehensive and turning to the title of community college.

The last decade has seen an increased amount of federal money being placed at the disposal of all segments of education with much being marked for technical training, training in the various areas of health services, and in strengthening the guidance and counseling functions. These functions have become principally the domain of the two-year colleges and have given much force in the various states to the establishment of community colleges.

---

[12] Hillway, *op. cit.*, p. 45.

STRUCTURE OF THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

The original thoughts of Harper and Tappan and others was that the first two years of college would be used as an extension of the high school, making the public educational system a fourteen-year process. The form of organization which this extension took during this time is often referred to as the 6-4-4 plan and, other than the present system which is the most common, gained much support during the 1920's and early 1930's.

There were sixty-four of these four-year community colleges, as they were named, in 1949. The most prominent, and the one most often referred to in the literature, was conducted under the supervision of the Pasadena School District in California.[11]

The arguments for the 6-4-4 plan indicated that this type of arrangement would tend to keep students in school longer; that better vocational-technical education programs could be offered; that there would be less duplication of costs in expensive laboratories and equipment; that these added two years were actually more in tune with adolescence than they were with the 1920's; and, that there was more opportunity for socialization of students in this arrangement.

Abandonment came in the fifties and there are few, if any, of these institutions operating today. There is little in the literature to explain this, but a big factor in the abandonment stemmed from the state laws which defined district organization. It was too difficult to establish high school districts which would support this plan.

The trend at the present time throughout the nation is to establish junior or community colleges as two-year colleges and in many states they are set up on a county-wide basis to serve one or more counties. This plan basically would follow the 6-3-3-2 plan if the junior college is to remain under the wing of secondary education. The trend is in the other direction, however, and the community college is either a separate entity under a state plan or is being attached to higher education through control of the university system.

---

[11] Reichert, Stephen B. Jr. "The End of the Four Year College Movement in California." *Junior College Journal* 30: 439-45; April 1959.

CURRENT STATUS OF THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

The present costs of higher education and the overcrowding of resident campuses have forced a greater number of students to begin their collegiate life while living at home. The United States Office of Education forecasts that by 1975 three million more students will be seeking enrollment in college than there are this year.[14] Where will nine million college students be educated? The answer may well rest within the framework of the community college program.

The legislative bodies of several states have given some indication of their thinking. By 1966, 46 of the 50 states had passed enabling legislation providing for the formation of community colleges.[15]

Dr. William Priest, president of the American Association of Junior Colleges, in his farewell address in San Francisco, indicated that 190 junior colleges were slated to be established in the United States in 1967, and that by 1970 one of every three lower-division students in the United States will be enrolled in a two-year institution.

AN EVALUATION OF THE PROGRESS THAT HAS BEEN MADE

What is good about the contribution that has been made by the community college? This review of the history and development of the entire concept helps us to place in perspective such an evaluation.

In its short history we have found that three functions of the community college instructional programs have emerged: transfer, occupational, and adult. If we are to rate in our bias the "good" in the attaining of the occupational objective, then we must point out the changes that have brought about such an achievement.

Horace Griffitts reports on a study showing that the community college is uniquely qualified to offer the breadth of vocational training proposed in the Vocational Education Act of 1963.[16] The presidents and business department heads of 376 public community junior colleges were asked to rate the present importance and desired future importance of each of eight objectives in their institutions. The eight included transfer, semiprofessional, technical, supplemental, retraining, developmental, opportunity, and avocational.

---

[14] Gleazer, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

[15] Blocker, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

[16] Griffitts, Horace. "Postsecondary Business Education in the Community-Junior College." *Business Education Forum* 21: 8-11; January 1967.

The transfer objective is rated the most important of the eight objectives today. The purpose of the transfer objective is to provide a two-year curriculum for students who plan to transfer to a senior college to complete the baccalaureate degree in some field of business. Although much of the success of the community junior college's education mission has been based on the transfer function, it must be pointed out that many students, while completing a transfer curriculum, do not continue their degree study. Consequently, two other two-year curriculum objectives have been defined which have strong emphases in occupational education.

The semiprofessional objective's purpose is to provide two-year curriculums in marketing and/or management for students who seek semiprofessional positions at the supervisory or midmanagement levels upon completion of a curriculum. The purpose of the technical objective is to provide two-year curriculums for students who seek positions which are best defined as technical business; i.e., accounting, data processing, and secretarial administration.

Some distinguishing characteristics of these two objectives were pointed out. The semiprofessional objective, in curriculum content, was felt to be conceptually oriented: approximately 50 percent of the curriculum in general education and the remainder in business, with heavy emphasis in either marketing or management. The technical objective is oriented more toward the development of manipulative skills. Griffitts feels that to develop an employable skill in a technical area, perhaps as much as two-thirds of the curriculum should be devoted to study in the major area and other cognate business courses.

The current trend seems to be heavier in placing the importance on the semiprofessional objectives as contrasted to the earlier emphasis on the transfer objective.

The supplemental objective is rated fourth most important, with its purpose that of providing regular or special courses for persons who are presently employed but who need supplemental training for advancement in their present occupational fields.

Traditionally this has been delegated to the adult education facilities in the community. The trend to include this objective in the community college is gaining ground, but there is still a wide divergence of opinion on the part of educators about the importance of this objective.

CURRICULUM

The community college is designed to meet the needs of the community. The curriculum is set to fit local needs. Lay advisory committees, along with professional educators, develop the sequence of courses that will best prepare the student for eventual employment.

Each junior college outlines its own role in its own community. Areas in which vocational competence is to be developed are therefore in part dependent upon the community to be served. This is one of the strengths of the junior college concept. Time factors are reduced, since it is not so necessary to go the route of state boards or university dictates in setting up a vocational curriculum.

Typically one will find programs for vocational education that require a skill, maturity, and depth of understanding that lie between high school and college and professional programs. Other vocational education needs are met by company in-service training programs, by offerings of adult evening high schools, and by private business schools.[17]

In the California system, a technical-vocational curriculum represents two academic years of full-time collegiate instruction leading to an A.A. degree. Each curriculum includes a minimum of 26 units of general education subjects, selected in such a manner as to assure a sampling of several fields of human knowledge and endeavor. Each curriculum is established with the assistance of an advisory committee composed of experts in a given specialty of selected college representatives. The curriculums are reviewed periodically by the appropriate committees in order to assure that current developments are reflected. Each curriculum is established after examining employment demands. Each curriculum is established to train only for those occupations that, according to research, tend to meet most of the important requisites for job satisfaction: (a) opportunity for advancement, (b) opportunity for individual effort, (c) opportunity to assume responsibility, (d) opportunity for creativity and the use of initiative, and (e) good pay.

By adhering to the role outlined above, the junior college can offer college courses for college credit; combine these courses to form outstanding occupational programs for high school graduates and other qualified students; assure its graduates of ready employment opportunities; retrain personnel where occupational needs have shifted; help meet major manpower needs in our high-caliber business and industrial community; and, as a by-product, serve as a model for meeting the challenge of an exploding technology through advanced kinds of vocational-education endeavors throughout the nation.

---

[17] Thompson, Robert J. "Desired Outcomes of Education for Business in the Junior College." *New Perspectives in Education For Business.* National Business Education Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1963. Chapter 12, pp. 371-83.

INSTRUCTION

A qualified faculty, certificated, licensed, and vocationally experienced typifies the junior college. As a part of the secondary system in many states, the standards for teaching are a part of the state credential system.

Facilities and equipment are of local concern, with state and federal aid available for qualified programs. Local industry is often able to assist the community college in utilizing modern and sophisticated equipment that could not otherwise be purchased by a school district. The field of data processing is an excellent example. The community colleges have led the colleges and universities in many states in offering courses and instruction in data processing and computer science.

Articulation of instruction with the high schools has been a natural progression as we have reviewed the history of the community college. A close articulation with both high schools and four-year colleges has reduced the frustration and waste of repeating course content while in pursuit of a vocational objective.

The junior college is an institution planning and preparing for the future. The business courses and the related courses that form the curriculum pattern for maximum competence in a highly technical society are being planned according to community and societal needs.

SUMMARY

Courses, curriculums, teachers, and students are taking their cue from business and industry. The junior college or the community college has demonstrated that it is the vocational center of the community. The continued opportunity to develop a variety of business curriculums other than the traditional stereotypes exists. Having met the challenge of the immediate needs of the community does not relieve the community college of the responsibility to look ahead for needed training opportunities and emphasis not offered elsewhere. The community college has demonstrated an acceptance of the challenge and is truly the institution that forms the center for vocational education in the United States.

Chapter 27

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

SUSANNE A. TJORNHOM, Fergus Falls State Junior College,
Fergus Falls, Minnesota

This chapter concerning the weaknesses of the junior colleges, and more particularly the weaknesses of business education in the junior colleges, will not attempt to identify weaknesses of organization or personnel that might be peculiar to specific junior colleges. Rather, an attempt will be made to point out weaknesses in the thinking and philosophies behind the establishment of the junior colleges, and to show how this thinking has affected, and will probably continue to affect, business education programs.

In assessing the weaknesses of the junior college system in the past and up to the present, probably the most apparent weakness has been one of attitudes—the attitudes of those within the junior college system toward the system itself, and the attitudes of those who are outside the junior college system.

The men who first envisioned a junior college system recognized the fact that not all students think in terms of a four-year degree program when they plan ahead for their vocations. Just as there are some who think in terms of five or eight years to complete engineering or medical degrees, so too, there are those students who think of two years preparation for a semiprofession. This is a concept that is difficult for many to accept.

This kind of thinking is not limited to those outside the junior college system: it is just as prevalent among faculty members and administrators within the system itself. It is this concept that has hindered the establishment of two-year terminal business curriculums in junior colleges. Those who think only in terms of four-year programs think of junior colleges as primarily offering the first two years of a four-year program, when in reality that is just one of the purposes of a junior college.

The three generally accepted purposes of the junior college are: (1) to provide two-year terminal curriculums for those who desire to complete their vocational preparation in this length of time, (2) to provide the first two years of a four-year curriculum, and (3) to provide opportunities for adults within the area of the college to refine present learnings or to acquire new knowledges. Each of these purposes has played an important part in the development and growth of junior colleges.

WEAKNESSES IN THE CURRICULUMS

In examining the professional literature pertaining to the junior college, one finds frequent references to the fact that there are not as many business curriculums as there might be. A recent study showed that there were 821 business curriculums offered in 139 junior colleges. Of these, 529 were two-year terminal curriculums, 93 were one-year terminal curriculums, and 199 were transfer curriculums, or the first two years of a four-year program. This same study also showed that the two-year terminal secretarial curriculums were offered more often than any other business curriculum in the junior colleges included in the study. Following the secretarial curriculums, the two-year terminal curriculums offered most often were the accounting and the general business curriculums.

The one-year terminal curriculum offered most often was the secretarial. This was followed by the general business curriculum in second place, and the stenographic curriculum in third place. A general observation concerning these one-year terminal curriculums would be that they appeared to be offered most frequently as a part of the programs of the junior colleges in the central part of the United States.

The transfer curriculum (the first two years of a four-year degree program) offered most often was the business administration curriculum, followed by the business education curriculum in second place, and the accounting curriculum in third place.

In assessing the findings of this study as compared with previous studies, it would appear that the inclusion of this number of two-year terminal curriculums would partially fulfill the role of the junior colleges in offering such curriculums for their students.

A second attitude that has worked negatively against the junior college has been the idea that the word "junior" in junior college indicates a level of education that is something less than other aspects of higher education.

It was in 1900 that the term junior college was first used by William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago. When Harper (who has been called the "Father of the Junior College") used the term, he used it to describe two years of collegiate education beyond the high school. He suggested that the following two years should be called the "senior college," but this term has never been widely accepted.

Harper originally proposed a reorganization of the University of Chicago into two colleges: a junior college and a senior college. He also proposed that these junior colleges should be established in communities away from the universities so that the student could benefit from two more years of home influence; so that some of the students could complete the first two years of a four-year degree program close to home before assuming their studies at the university; and so that those students who chose to prepare for a vocation in two years would be able to do so. Even then—and this was before 1900—he recognized the fact that not all students chose a vocation that required four years of preparation.

While this attitude has not influenced the establishment of business curriculums, it does play a part in the choice of institutions of higher education that students do make.

A third weakness that relates specifically to the business curriculum concerns the number of subjects required to complete it.

One of the frequently stated advantages of attending a junior college has been that the curriculum the student intends to study can be tailored specifically for that student's needs. The catalogue of every junior college included in the study carried a statement to that effect. The statement was not always included in the information about a specific curriculum. It was sometimes found in the general introduction for all business curriculums or in the general information at the beginning of the catalogue.

There are, in reality, three facets of this problem to be considered. The first is the obvious one: the number of business subjects required of a student enrolled in a specific curriculum. Most of the curriculums examined did allow some time for the student to study electives, but the number in which every credit of a two-year curriculum was required was large enough to be of real concern to junior college curriculum planners. In some junior colleges it is evident that although the general education requirements of the junior college itself might be few, those persons responsible for the business curriculum have made requirements extremely rigid. In each curriculum there are certain subjects that must be required, but a careful examination must be made before preparing a curriculum that allows no opportunity for the student to develop his own special interests.

If one of the advantages of attending a junior college is that a student may have a curriculum prepared for his special needs and interests, then these curriculums with the large numbers of required subjects should be carefully examined. If, on the other hand, the specially prepared curriculum is not one of the advantages of junior college attendance, then these misleading statements should be removed from the college catalogues.

The second facet of this problem is concerned with the general education requirements of the junior college in which a specific curriculum is being studied. There is a wide variance in junior colleges in the number of general education requirements for graduation. It varies from as little as one-fourth of the total number of credits needed for graduation to over one-half of the total credits. Where there is a requirement of one-fourth of the total credits, there is ample time for a student to study the specific subjects he needs to prepare himself for the career he is planning, but in the junior colleges where the general education requirements are half of the credits, this is difficult.

The general education requirements may be set by the state system, of which the junior college is a part, or these requirements may be set by the junior college itself. Transfer students who desire to earn a four-year degree need to complete most of their general education requirements in the junior college, and apparently this is the plan behind most transfer curriculums. It is often true that because a certain number of general education subjects are required by the transfer student, this same number of general education subjects are required for the two-year student.

The terminal student has a right to expect that in the two years he spends in junior college he should be prepared in the very best way with the skills and knowledges he needs to fulfill his job responsibilities. The terminal student should not be expected to complete the same number of general education requirements for a program planned for two years as the student who will enter a program planned for four years.

The third facet of this problem is concerned with the business subjects that are included as required subjects in each curriculum. It is true that a rationale can be established that will justify the inclusion of almost any subject in any curriculum on the grounds that it does add to the fund of knowledge of the student.

There should be a complete evaluation by every junior college of the subjects that are required to complete any business curriculum. A subject should not be required because it is popular in a specific junior college. However this seems to be a rather common practice. This judgment is made after an examination of all the required subjects listed for the business curriculums. The argument often used is that almost any subject is beneficial in some way to the student. This is not the primary consideration. The primary consideration should be if the required subject does, in some tangible way, contribute to the skill or understanding of the student to make him better able to fulfill the responsibilities of the position he will assume upon completion of junior college.

A junior college curriculum planner should also be concerned with the subjects that are considered traditional. Just because a subject has been required is no reason for continuing to require it. An examination of the list of required subjects makes it apparent that some junior colleges have departed from the usual kinds of course offerings and have included new and different requirements for the students. Other junior colleges should follow this example. An organized and systematic evaluation of required subjects must be carried out to insure the inclusion of only those required subjects that actually contribute to the curriculum in which they are included.

The junior college movement is still young and vibrant. Compared with other steps in our educational system, the junior college is still an infant. For all of the 67 years of the history of the junior college, writers have been saying that here is one step in our educational system that is not tradition-bound; here is the place where new ideas can be tried out; here is a place for real educational creativity. But is this true? Are the junior colleges already becoming caught in tradition without even having tried their wings? This is the fourth weakness that seems apparent: the junior colleges are not experimenting as much as they could.

The real individuality of the junior college curriculum, in the study previously referred to, was apparent not from examining the core of subjects that were required, but from the subject innovations that had been included. In most cases not only the title of these subjects, but the course descriptions as well, showed imagination and enthusiasm for the teaching being done.

One of the characteristics of the junior college system that has been emphasized over and over again is the fact that it is not bound by tradition. The only criterion for the worth of the curriculum should be if it prepares the student for the employment he desires. The only criterion for the worth of a subject should be if it adds to the student's knowledge, skill, and understanding in a particular curriculum. There is a great deal of evidence that some junior colleges have been most imaginative in creating subjects for specific learning situations, but there is also evidence that other junior colleges continue to offer stereotyped programs that are little different from those they offered twenty years ago.

The fifth weakness is concerned with the similarity between the two-year terminal programs and the transfer programs that bear the same name.

There are certain basic similarities which do exist between the terminal and transfer curriculums, but in too many instances they are exactly alike. Before any curriculum can be successful there must be a clear understanding of its purposes.

The purpose of a four-year business administration curriculum, for example, is to prepare a student for the business world in four years. The purpose of a two-year business administration curriculum is to prepare a student for the business world in two years. In reality there is only one similarity between the two: both are assigned the name of business administration. It is a mistake to suppose that the business administration curriculum that is to be completed in two years is the first two years of a four-year program. In too many colleges the distinction between the terminal and transfer programs is not marked.

This weakness cited here is a weakness in itself, and it is indicative of a far greater weakness in the philosophy of the junior college administrators and teachers. Because here again we have the subtle injection of the idea that all students must prepare themselves for a vocation with a four-year degree.

Another phase of this weakness is apparent when we consider the number of junior colleges that have set themselves up as "feeder schools" to nearby colleges and universities. The requirements and programs of a junior college are so geared to the requirements of a particular college or university that it is difficult for a student to complete the requirements either for transfer to another school or for a two-year terminal program.

The next point to be presented has been considered in recent years as a weakness in junior colleges, but the study recently completed seems to indicate that it is no longer the weakness it once was. The addition of new subjects to established curriculums has been a concern of those associated with junior colleges. There has been a feeling that the business curriculums were not being subjected to a formal evaluation as often as they might be, and that this lack of evaluation was the reason that new subjects were not being added or existing subjects not being discontinued, if this were found necessary.

Of the 139 junior colleges recently studied, 89 of them (64 percent) reported that 343 subjects had been added to the business curriculum in the last two years. Fifty junior colleges had not added any new subjects. However, eight of these 50 junior colleges indicated that they were two years old or less, so that all their curriculums were new. Several of these reported that although their curriculums were new, they were already being examined for additions or deletions. It is interesting to note, too, the reasons that were given for adding new subjects. The reason given most often was to strengthen the course offerings in business curriculums. Other reasons, listed in the order in which they were mentioned, were: student needs, community needs, assisting the student in transfer, and as a part of new curriculums.

Sixty-eight junior colleges reported that they intended to add 177 subjects to business curriculums in the near future. The reason given most often for this was student need. The need to strengthen the course offering was given in second place as the reason for intending to add new subjects, and the third place reason was community need. The last three reasons mentioned were: at the recommendation of an advisory committee, to aid the student in transfer, and as the result of a community survey.

Equally as important in the evaluation of curriculums as the addition of new subjects is the discontinuance of subjects when necessary. Forty-nine junior colleges indicated that 84 subjects had been discontinued during the past two years. The principal reason given for discontinuing a subject was that the course content was repetitious. This was followed closely by lack of student interest in second place. These two reasons were followed by: lack of teaching personnel, difficult to transfer, being taught in another department, an upper division subject, student should come with these skills, inadequate equipment, not college level, and out of date.

Thirteen junior colleges reported that they intended to discontinue 23 subjects in their curriculums. The reason given most often was that the subject had been combined with another course. There were only two other reasons given: there was no demand for the subject, and the subject was not transferrable.

It is only as the curriculums are continually examined, as new subjects are added or old subjects discontinued, that they can truly reflect the needs of the students and the community. The study showed evidence of continuous evaluation of the curriculums in some junior colleges, and it would be well for all junior colleges to follow that example.

SUMMARY

In the short history of the junior college movement, the number of junior colleges has grown rapidly as has the number of curriculums in business. It is only as each junior college recognizes its weaknesses and undertakes to correct them that the junior college can continue to be deserving of the place in the American education system that it has earned. While the six weaknesses that are discussed in this chapter may not be problems in any particular junior college, it is hoped that this discussion will stimulate critical thinking to examine the purposes, aims, and philosophies of every junior college.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Eells, Walter Crosby. *The Junior College.* New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1931.

McDaniel, J. W., and Merson, Thomas B. "Selecting a College and a Program." *Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1963.

Reynolds, James Walton. *The Junior College.* New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1965.

Tjornhom, Susanne A. "Business Curriculum Patterns in Selected Public Junior Colleges in the United States." Doctor's Thesis. Grand Forks: University of North Dakota, 1967. (Unpublished)

Venn, Grant. *Man, Education and Work.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1964.

Chapter 28

Projections for the Future

J. ALVIN DICKINSON, University of Kentucky, Lexington

Every level of education today is undergoing such critical scrutiny as is seldom seen. From these examinations, results will doubtless come in many forms. The future effectiveness of the schools will depend greatly on the care with which educators clarify their objectives as well as the diligence with which curricular and other developments are handled. While every level of education may require constant attention—now as well as any other time—the junior college level certainly will require a significant portion of all this attention.

A pressing concern for the most effective development of junior college-level institutions is at hand. These colleges in many instances are facing newly-felt needs; and where their backgrounds provide little or no experience to help in seeking solutions, innovation and experimentation will be required. The community concept itself is sufficiently complex as to require action in several directions at once.

AIMS (TYPES OF PROGRAMS)

The traditional junior colleges may neither have looked like nor acted much like the community junior college as it appears to be evolving just now, and they may be even less like those of tomorrow. There have been varied types of junior colleges. Some were fine schools. Many were junior colleges because they were not sufficiently successful to become four-year colleges. Generally, though, there has been no momentum for establishing community junior colleges such as we have today.

The current emphasis comes from a felt need. Eventually the community junior colleges must emerge as partners both with the high school and with the senior college if they are to be justified. They must excel at the art of simultaneously providing educational programs for a really heterogeneous collection of students.

Basically, programs in the community junior college can probably be classified as terminal, transfer, and continuing education. It may take some brilliance to get these three to live together in comfort. The transfer program, for instance, already is surrounded with an aura of respectability that the other two do not have. In the years ahead, however, all three of these must be given the full acceptance they deserve to have.

The Transfer Program

Making partners of the various types of institutions may be easier said than done. Universities often suspect the content of freshman and sophomore courses when these are taught in two-year colleges. But if the community colleges are to be partners in the total program of education, they must have a fair amount of autonomy in setting up their courses, and the four-year schools must accept this as normal. When students in the community colleges study economics, accounting, and so on, the courses must be sound in every way, and they must be accepted without question. This is particularly true where the course work is connected with the transfer function.

The Terminal Program

A second type of program in the community junior college provides for the terminal educational program of many students. A two-year program can do much in the preparation of many kinds of office workers. Secretaries and clerical workers who require more than the usual high school business program can be trained here. Much can be done with persons going into retailing and other marketing situations.

Once all persons involved have become committed to the realistic concept of terminal education before the baccalaureate degree, schools will be free to concentrate upon useful programs designed around the present and the immediate future. The competency of the student, rather than strictly the number of credits, could allow a much freer basis for setting up programs than has been possible otherwise. The advisor can say in effect, "These are your competencies now. They qualify you to do such and such. What is your goal ultimately? To reach that goal it will be necessary to. . . ." In that type of planning session, the student can discover what he has time to accomplish in his occupational preparation, in his mastery of fundamental communication and computation skills, and in the area of general education.

At this point, it is worth noting that the value of general education study is that it would provide the student with many new ideas, frames of reference, and approaches to the solutions of problems. Assuming that this exposure to general education "takes," a student should be more able to commit himself to a vocation and to his other life plans. Thus it should be considered an indispensable part of vocational preparation.

To some extent, our education systems are overdue in providing sufficiently good opportunities for specific development of workers in several fields of business. Certain types of preparation criticized as being "descriptive" have frequently disappeared from the curriculums offered. This is even more true in four-year colleges. Much of the cause for this is that educational philosophies about business preparation took a wide swing away from teaching specific information. Perhaps they swung too far in some cases.

Two well-known publications were particularly influential along this line. They are *The Education of American Businessmen* by Frank Pierson and *Higher Education for Business* by Robert A. Gordon and James E. Howell. These published reports had and continue to have a great deal of influence on college and university curriculums. The effect in some instances is that it is virtually impossible in certain business departments to get many business courses before the junior year. In many cases courses have been moved upward to the graduate level thus impoverishing undergraduate education. Students terminating their education before the graduate level may miss certain areas of study altogether.

If certain programs continue toward de-emphasis elsewhere, the community junior college will find an increased need for preparation of business workers in areas such as secretarial training. There has been some feeling that the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business fosters attitudes among college deans that tend toward the elimination of office education from schools or departments of business. In some cases these have been relocated in colleges of education because there has been no other place to put them. There is also the feeling that where programs in office education have not been eliminated, they have at least been reduced or modified in ways that weaken the programs as preparation for office positions.

As unfortunate as this may be for the programs in colleges and universities, it does serve to remind the community colleges of the need for sound programs of this type. There is, of course, little doubt that the future for community college departments in office education is very bright. Terminal programs of this type are those made necessary not only by the increased need in general for such workers but also because four-year institutions are not tending these as they should.

Concerning terminal programs, educators and lay people alike must begin to realize that competent work performance of any type is respectable and that preparation can often be made without four years of college. Parents must come to the understanding that their children can receive a good education from the community college sometimes at a fraction of the cost and inconvenience of two years somewhere else.

The Continuing Education Program

Special programs in education are now operating for those who are not available for full-time study in day school. Jobs and family rank high at keeping women away. Men frequently can find only a little time to work toward vocational or personal improvement. Now with the rapid development of community colleges, an institution is becoming available for administering these programs in an ideal environment. Ultimately the question of where such programs are administered may depend somewhat more on the intricacies of obtaining federal funds than upon anything else. However one must assume that the community college may have a large share of such enrollees because of an excellent capability for incorporating such programs into the over-all plans of community-oriented colleges.

The continuing education classification frequently includes people who—

1. Once had some competency in the area but have found that their competency needs renewal and updating.
2. Never had a real competency in any area and who are trying now for some vocational and/or cultural attainments.
3. Are at a high educational and cultural level but who need certain supplementary skills and knowledges to permit them to operate vocationally at a level consistent with their other accomplishments or associations.

The conditions of today point plainly toward frequent retraining and other periodic re-education to stay abreast of current developments. Increased desire for advancement will bring many students back for additional study. And changes to new types of jobs will make re-education necessary for others. Whereas once only upper-level professionals found constant study necessary to maintain themselves in their vocations, others are at least approaching that direction since they often return to school. It is not unlikely that community colleges will find continuing education of one kind or another among their most thriving programs.

QUALIFICATIONS OF FACULTY

There are those who feel that junior college policies regularly cause teaching faculty to face certain dilemmas. One of these derives from difficult teaching assignments. Another concerns the difficulty of selecting further graduate study. If the third one exists, it is a matter of incomplete professional growth.

Professional Assignment

Perhaps the traditionally smaller size of junior colleges has been the cause of frequent assignments to teach simultaneously in unrelated or slightly-related fields. Perhaps the practice of making such assignments has not been sufficiently frowned upon by some professional organizations. Nevertheless, it is increasingly difficult to perform in a highly competent manner as the breadth of the assignment makes a greater and greater gulf between one type of preparation and another. Such assignments are reminiscent of the high school provision for teaching both in one's major field and one's minor field simultaneously. Possibly this has been influenced by the closeness with which junior colleges have sometimes been tied to high schools.

The difficulty of arranging class offerings into exact units by full-time positions creates one problem. In periods of departmental growth, for instance, the addition of staff by half-time units would be more convenient than by full-time units. As this is sometimes not possible, the temptation arises to assign an unrelated or scarcely-related combination such as three classes of typewriting and one of economics.

Selecting Additional Appropriate Study

Further graduate study for the junior college faculty member provokes considerable thought in building an appropriate study program. Unless the teacher is planning extensive study beyond the master's degree, he will find even greater difficulty in selecting from the courses available. He could choose from colleges or departments of education, from his principal teaching field, and also from other courses if he is teaching in an unrelated or scarcely-related area. What shall he neglect? . . . the subject matter of his chosen field? . . . the education courses which he needs to increase his effectiveness as a teacher? . . . the subject matter in the "other" field where he is probably least competent?

The problem is serious enough in any case. And poor teaching through inadequate preparation in the subject matter or skills, or poor teaching because the teacher does not understand the classroom processes, sometimes pointedly calls attention to neglect of one of these areas. For such neglect the students suffer. While one cannot effectively teach what he does not know, he also cannot teach what he knows but cannot translate into meaningful learning activity.

The problems of teaching assignment and of continued study often tend to be interconnected. Both deserve careful attention in the total concern for the dynamic development of community colleges as highly respected educational institutions which are partners, not servants. The solution to the problem of selecting appropriate additional study must contain consideration for competence as to subject matter and to teaching.

Professional Concept

One qualification which has a great effect on the behavior of teaching personnel is that of professional concept. The professor who sees himself as a true professional is more likely to face up to the full responsibilities of his vocation. He is less likely to remain on the sidelines with involvement limited to occasional utterances that "they" should do this or that. As a professional who accepts his responsibilities, he sees that the quality of a course or a program of study is *his* responsibility. Further, his responsibility becomes no less if someone shares in it (in the same or a different way); nevertheless, his responsibility may be somewhat easier to bear.

An example of failure to accept responsibility is the person who teaches economics for years without seeing himself as an economist. The person who continuously teaches typewriting should come to see himself as a typist of professional caliber. The comparison could be carried on for shorthand, accounting, office machines, and others.

Although certain problems may exist, these have possible solutions; and in all probability, the renewed interest in education at the junior college level will give a greater feeling of confidence among faculties. Once community colleges become established, not only for their service to communities but also in helping communities to find their own proper image, additional pride will begin. Confidence and pride can provide the necessary support for carrying through proper faculty assignments, for a greater attention to proper graduate programs, and for the nourishment of faculties toward self-realization as mature professionals.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH HIGH SCHOOLS AND SENIOR COLLEGES

Poor articulation between educational institutions at the various levels calls attention to the fact that limiting modes of thought may often operate to a disadvantage. High schools and senior colleges have difficulty in relating smoothly to each other, and junior colleges are victims of poor articulation with both.

In business education, and particularly in the office education phase of business education, the distinctions between programs in certain high schools, junior colleges, and senior colleges are difficult to make. There may be some justification for nearly identical programs in junior colleges and senior colleges. After all, the first two years of study in a senior college is indeed junior college study. There may be instances where programs are identical with good purpose. Yet all is not well. Professors in four-year colleges and universities fear "watered down" courses in junior colleges. They fear the wrong degree of specialization. They fear that the work will be made too easy.

Conflict with Senior Colleges

Attitudes of disapproval toward junior colleges, when those attitudes have existed, are clearly recognized. And reactions of junior college personnel are understandable. There are at least two ways that the junior college professor may react to justify his position with regard to the way he is teaching and the results obtained. In one case, he can note the nature of courses taught by his counterparts in an effort to teach courses which are identical in content and outcome with those of the senior college.

In another way, he may develop a different kind of course. Sometimes one course is best and sometimes another suits well. Certainly he must consider the fact that the student material he has to work with is sometimes the same and sometimes different in ability, direction of study, and perhaps in individual need.

Thus the junior college teacher finds himself sometimes in an ambiguous position. He needs to teach a standard course in economics, accounting, typewriting, or what have you and simultaneously provide for the special needs of those who are in terminal two-year programs and those who are in continuing education programs.

Even though there are many students who have their entire program involved with the junior college and have no transfer intentions, pressure for conformity tends to exist still. If the pressure improves the courses needed for transfer students, it can be defended. It cannot be defended, however, to the extent that it hampers attempts to design courses for student needs when these needs are different from those of transferring students.

Separate courses often may be the answer. Actually, the academic compartmentalization which exists for many divisions of subject matter imposes a limitation of its own. If a junior college seeks to truly design courses for the needs of students, there may be benefits at times in getting away from the traditional. As one example, the junior college student does not have unlimited time to pursue a large variety of courses; therefore, a fresh approach may enable him to understand that there is a unified nature of all knowledge—that economics can be learned in the English class and grammar can be learned in typewriting, but that separately (without reference to one another) none of these actually amounts to very much.

Conflict with the High School

Ideally, of course, the community junior college simply takes high school students where they are and progresses from that point. In practice, however, the situation is not so simple. In the first place, it is difficult for the junior college to know just where to begin. To cope with this situation, it is necessary for the junior college to offer several levels of instruction in some subjects, often duplicating high school courses. Typewriting and shorthand are typically involved in this way as students may have studied from none to four semesters of either subject. The fact that this same inconvenient situation is true in senior colleges as well provides little comfort.

When students transfer from one level to another, a certain legalism gets involved. A particular number of credits accompanied by the proper grade point passes for a satisfactory means of placement. The same may be true for all students, but it would be less pressing on the junior college if it could assume that students would not later transfer to a senior college. There would be more freedom to do what appears useful rather than what appears legal.

For those other students who do not expect to transfer, the junior colleges should plan programs concerned with what the students learned in high school and what they now need. Complications arise because elements in the high school parallel some elements in the junior college. This is true even though the depth of inquiry or extent of skill development may not be the same. Two facts in particular prevent reciprocal agreements between junior colleges and high schools that would take care of this situation: students do not always know what their plans will be so far ahead of time, and the determination of a student's program of study requires a different organization of work.

Fixed solutions to problems of this type are perhaps impossible. Since the problems cannot be removed, they will simply have to be minimized as much as possible through flexible programs that allow variations depending upon the status and aspirations of students.

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND EVALUATION

One of the places where teachers as a group have given the least attention is the development of standards of achievement which can be used in evaluating levels of accomplishment. One cannot escape doing something about giving classroom grades periodically, but even that area lacks real attention and inquiry. Even more, business education could use more knowledge about what constitutes various satisfactory or unsatisfactory outcomes in terms of vocational competency and so on. We are most concerned here at this time with knowledge of competency and understanding when the knowledge is not used as a basis for a grade.

Achievement in Basic Skill

In the years to come, business educators must become less timid about deciding what skill levels can be achieved by their students. For some reason teachers have not taken advantage of the clearest opportunities for investigating standards of achievement. Yet in the future, there will be more need than ever before for adopting standard measures which give truly meaningful guages in terms of student preparation to do something or of student ability to think competently.

A case in point is the inadequacy of the whole words-a-minute plan as a broad statement of ability in typewriting and shorthand. As a teaching device, a diagnostic technique, and so on, words a minute will probably remain significantly useful; however, as the ultimate measure of success it is and will remain woefully inadequate. In its place other statements concerning adequacy of preparation can and must be developed and popularized. Both typewriting and shorthand skill measures suffer equally from the words-a-minute type of measurement. The inadequacy is clearly a case of the right measures for the wrong purposes.

Whether new methods are soon to be developed remains to be seen. Perhaps schools and employers can simply make better and fuller use of some of the possibilities already in existence. The National Business Entrance Tests deserve considerably more recognition than they have ever received. When scores on tests of this type accompany straight copy rates in typewriting or the usual dictation rates in shorthand, a much fuller story will be told about a student's achievement. A teacher can more clearly evaluate student work, and a prospective employer can more clearly evaluate the chances of success for a beginning worker.

To carry this idea further, students might also wish to have as a matter of record some score yet to be developed, perhaps one similar to a civil service rating. The recognizable graded steps of achievement permit a clear idea of how one stands. One knows whether he has reached his present goal or whether he must continue along certain lines to raise his level of competency.

Achievement in Experience Situations

The value of experience is well known in the selection of teachers, secretarial and clerical personnel, retail store personnel, and so on. It should not be difficult to see the inherent possibilities of value in providing a student with valuable experience and then using the experience as a basis for an experience rating. Certainly the possibility exists and deserves attention. It is a natural possibility for those persons who are getting work experience along with their classroom education. The student can be evaluated on his performance *within a certain DOT classification.* With such evaluation as a part of his file of credentials, both the student's school and his prospective employer will know something significant about him.

In addition to the usual type of work experience, it may be possible to go further with simulated work experience. We already know that simulation is a reasonable method for part of the learning of office skills. The significance of simulated work experience becomes even more intriguing when one considers that the values are more than new motivational possibilities.

An additional step with simulated work experience may include an investigation as to how closely the simulated situations can be set up to approximate various DOT classifications. If this can be done to a degree that is widely acceptable, there will have developed a whole new possibility in useful evaluation of student qualifications. As a statement of qualifications, the notation on a student record such as "six weeks in DOT classification ————, better than average performance" makes a truly helpful comment—provided, of course, we do finally become reconciled to familiarizing ourselves with DOT classifications.

SUMMARY

As community colleges look toward the future, they are facing many situations which may require innovation and experimentation in seeking the best paths of action. They have to turn in new directions from time to time and even backtrack on occasion. Nevertheless, there already are some indications of the types of things that need to be done. Among these are the ones listed here.

1. There will be a continued need for programs for those students who will transfer later to senior colleges and universities. Such programs will necessitate course offerings similar to those found in the higher-level institutions.
2. Community colleges and persons in the community must come to an understanding of the realistic concept that terminal programs are proper and useful for many people.
3. Continuing education programs are ideally suited to community colleges, and courses must be arranged to care for the multiplicity of student differences that will be involved.

4. Qualifications for community college faculty may be very similar to that of their counterparts in senior colleges, but the members may have to be especially oriented to the different emphases.

5. Relationships with high schools and senior colleges can be kept at a much better level with conscious attention. Articulation conferences may serve an effective function in this direction.

6. Better measures of achievement are needed in business education at all levels. Community colleges are in an excellent position for making distinctions between giving grades, classifying levels of basic skill, and recognizing useful types of experience.

An excellent opportunity exists for community colleges to fulfill some needs in areas where neither high schools nor senior colleges are quite so well suited. If community colleges recognize these opportunities for what they are, the resulting actions can help to point up the fact that these institutions are integral parts of both the community and the educational process.

SELECTED REFERENCES

CAUDILL, WILLIAM W. "The Case of the Hipbone." *Junior College Journal* 36: 20-23; September 1965.

DOYLE, WALTER. "Community College Concept in Higher Education." *Catholic Education Review* 64: 251-262; April 1966.

GAUVEY, R. E. "Experimentation: Implications for Junior Colleges." *Junior College Journal* 37: 10-11; October 1966.

JOHNSON, B. L. "Needed: Experimental Junior Colleges." *Junior College Journal* 36: 17-20; October 1965.

KINTZER, FREDERICK C. "Articulation Is an Opportunity." *Junior College Journal* 37: 16-19; April 1967.

KOCH, M. S., and WOOLLEY, P. M. "Opportunity for Community Colleges; Two Baltimore Junior Colleges Provide an Example of How To Respond to Local Needs." *Junior College Journal* 36: 26-29; October 1965.

KUHLMAN, JOHN M. "The Dilemma of the Junior College." *Junior College Journal* 37: 68-70; March 1967.

PYLE, G. B. "Community Colleges and General Education in a Free Society." *Journal of General Education* 18: 227-238; January 1967.

RICHARDS, J. M. JR., and OTHERS. "Description of Junior Colleges." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 57: 207-214; August 1966.

SCOLNICK, ARNOLD H. "Community Colleges Can Ease the Crisis in Retailing Education." *Business Education World* 46: 20-21; October 1965.

IV

Business Teacher Education

Chapter 29

Strengths of the Past and Present

JAMES G. MARMAS, St. Cloud State College, St. Cloud, Minnesota

Most business educators will agree that in order to develop future educational programs appropriately, we must understand and evaluate past as well as present programs and activities. Such an assessment can accomplish at least three things:

1. It can show what historical ingredients have gone into our present beliefs and practices.
2. It can show what problems face us when inherited traditions confront new conditions and new demands.
3. It can show how others have resolved similar although not identical problems.

A review of the past and present in business teacher education can also be an indispensable ingredient in making sound judgments. In this regard, business teacher educators have much to be proud of as the strengths of the past and present of business education are reviewed.

GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

During the early history of secondary business education, teachers were largely recruited from private business schools. Business teachers entering public school teaching from these schools were for the most part technical specialists. They were recruited from business because of a specialization in certain areas. Although teachers drawn from these schools and from business were capable in their areas of specialization, their backgrounds were somewhat limited in general education preparation as compared to their teaching counterparts in the more established and traditional teaching areas. In terms of status within existing secondary school programs, this lack of preparation presented difficulties in developing the business curriculum. The major force for the development of business programs during this period was created by public and business demand. Business was expanding rapidly, the demand for capable employees was increasing—programs were developed in both public and private institutions to meet this demand.

As business education programs grew, the demand for qualified teachers required that the developing normal schools, which were responsible for the preparation of teachers, provide programs and facilities for business teacher education. These developing programs in normal schools filled a void by providing for a program of general education in addition to specialized business training. The general education program included instruction in the humanities, social sciences, sciences, and mathematics. The philosophy of that period, which was traditional as well as functional, was that teachers should be prepared not only in an area of specialization but also in the sciences and arts of life. This tradition, although changed in substance, is still basic to the preparation of teachers. For business teachers this was significant since their preparation became more consistent with the preparation of teachers in other areas.

Today, general education continues to be an essential and integral part of the preparation of business teachers. The philosophy of general education recently developed by representative business educators in connection with a United States Office of Education project is as follows:

> A teacher may relate more effectively to his total environment if he has a general education in addition to his specialized preparation. General education (which includes such disciplines as behavioral sciences, humanities, natural sciences, mathematics, physical health, and communications) should help to channel his intellectual capacities to the goal of self realization and responsible citizenship, and into those accomplishments generally accepted as the marks of an educated person.[1]

---

[1] *Guidelines for the Preparation of Office Occupations Teachers*." U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research, Division of Adult and Vocational Education, Project No. 6-1522-1-32. Fred S. Cook, Principal Investigator, Wayne State University, 1966.

MAJOR SUBJECTS REQUIREMENTS

Requirements for business teachers in so-called "subject matter" areas have varied considerably over the years. In the early days of business education, experience in business and limited formalized training characterized the specialized preparation of business teachers. Early business programs were characterized by emphasis on bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand. Courses in junior business training and office practice followed. These courses were primarily vocational in their orientation and designed to prepare students for office jobs.

The subject matter emphasis in collegiate programs during these years focused primarily on preparation for teaching in these basic areas. This traditional preparation of teachers, although changed by new methods, research, and technological developments, has continued over the years. In addition, however, a broader spectrum of courses and programs has also been included in the preparation of teachers. This expansion of course offerings cannot be attributed entirely to business teacher educators. The demands by business and industry for more specialized business personnel, accompanied by the growth of schools of business that emphasized the preparation of accountants, managers, marketing personnel, etc., forced the expansion of the business curriculum. With more courses available, it was only natural that a broader preparation would be included in the preparation of business teachers. Changes in the technology of business and office education, manpower trends, and the general education movement have also had an impact on business teacher education programs.

Within the last decade business and office technology has developed rapidly. The development and acceptance of sophisticated data processing equipment has made automation a byword. The utilization by business firms of a systems approach to management decision-making is having its impact. Through electronic checking accounts, credit cards, and touch-tone dial credit systems, we are truly becoming a cashless society. Technological changes have resulted in a review and retrenching of business teacher education programs. No longer does the prospective business teacher take only courses specifically oriented toward "the big three." His program now includes course work in management, business communications, marketing, law, finance, data processing, and statistics.

Manpower trends and population changes have also had an influence on collegiate business teacher education programs. During the past decade, professional, office, and sales workers as a group exceeded for the first time in our history the number of persons employed in manual occupations. During the coming decade, it is reported that this trend will continue. Office, distributive, and other business educational programs have received substantial support as a result of this trend.

The increased demand for education by both young and old has resulted in the development of more post-high school programs that require teachers with varied academic and work experience backgrounds. The impact of federal and state funds through the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and others have had and will continue to have a substantial impact upon teacher education programs. Funds from these programs have led to the rapid development of area vocational-technical schools, expansion of cooperative education programs, and a wide variety of programs that provide for occupational mixes rather than preparation in specific skill areas.

The general education movement, which in business education programs is reflected through what is referred to as basic business and economic education, has had a decided impact on teacher education programs and directly or indirectly on high school programs. Courses such as general business, consumer economics, economics, business law, and others are important parts of most business curriculums at the high school level and in some post-high school programs. It can be concluded that it is as important for young people to *know about* business as it is for them to *prepare* for business.

The trends identified have been incorporated into the preparation of business education teachers in a variety of ways:

1. Programs include course work in management, business communications, marketing, law, finance, data processing, and statistics in addition to courses oriented toward the "big three."
2. More and varied programs are being established for business teachers. At one time a prospective business teacher planned his program in order to teach typewriting, shorthand, or bookkeeping. Now, many programs permit him to specialize in office administration, accounting, basic business and economics, or distributive education.
3. Many new courses have found their way into teacher education programs—courses designed to prepare secretaries in specialized areas, basic business and economic education courses, courses designed for coordinators in vocational programs, courses designed for people who have administrative responsibilities in vocational education programs,

courses designed to familiarize prospective teachers with new methodology and curriculum developments, and courses and programs designed to prepare coordinators of office and distributive education.

4. Various kinds of programs designed to prepare teachers for basic business and economic education programs have been added.
5. Work-study, internship, and cooperative programs in the preparation of business teachers have been designed to fulfill the work-experience requirements for state and federal reimbursed programs, provide teachers for vocational programs, and provide teachers who have had direct experiences with the business environment.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

As normal schools and teachers colleges redefined and developed their programs to include the preparation of business teachers, professional education was included as an integral part of this program. The professional education requirements for the business teacher are designed to accomplish these purposes:

1. Provide him with experiences that will develop interest in and dedication to the education of students
2. Provide him with an understanding of and competency in the teaching-learning process
3. Help him become proficient in the use of instructional procedures, media, and techniques
4. Help him understand the principles of curriculum and course development
5. Help him develop a philosophy of business education
6. Assist him to understand, appreciate, and keep abreast of innovation, experimentation, and research in education
7. Prepare him to work with students of varying needs, abilities, and ages
8. Prepare him to assist students in making sound educational and vocational choices.

Although professional education requirements vary among colleges and universities in course title and description, in each instance their purpose is to accomplish the goals indicated above. To the extent that these objectives are realized, this is a major strength of business teacher education programs.

A teacher cannot be totally effective with competence only in the so-called subject matter areas. No matter how well a teacher knows his subject matter, he cannot communicate effectively with students unless he knows how to teach and cope with students of varying ability levels. This ability to communicate involves familiarity with the psychological, sociological, historical, and philosophical foundations of education and the ability to utilize these in developing knowledges, understandings, skills, and problem-solving abilities on the following levels:

1. Facts, information, and skill-development level
2. Problem-solving level
3. Personal, vocational, or academic level.

Efforts are made in most teacher education programs to develop business teachers who are effective on each of these levels. The following examples will illustrate how each of these levels are utilized. In a consumer economics class, a teacher may present to his students the method for determining the true or effective interest rate through the use of the constant-ratio formula. By using illustrations, examples, discussion, and other varied means, the formula $R = \frac{2\ m\ i}{P\ (N + 1)}$ is presented. Although the manipulative aspects of the formula are mastered and we can conclude that the student has mastery at the facts, information, and skill level, this alone is not meaningful. If, however, students are helped to apply this formula to credit problems they may face, the knowledge, understanding, and skill takes on greater meaning and level two is accomplished. The ability to resolve problems one faces in a school environment is not the final objective of teaching, however. Good teachers are concerned that the impact of the school be reflected in one's personal life. If the student utilizes his knowledge of the formula and its application in his personal life to solve credit problems he faces, he has realized this threefold objective of the school.

WORK-EXPERIENCE REQUIREMENTS

Work experience in business is not a requirement of most business teacher education programs, although considered desirable by many educators. Although it is assumed that direct experience in a business environment is valuable because of the nature and variation of work experience, it cannot be definitely concluded that this is essential to these programs and a major strength. Part of the problem stems from the inability thus far to qualitatively evaluate the value of work experience.

New vocational-technical programs, which require two years or 4,000 clock hours of vocational experience in most states, require that an effort be made to find a way to evaluate qualitatively work experiences in business. Failing this, it seems desirable for teacher educators to establish supervised work-experience programs with objectives that are measurable in terms of the prospective vocational teacher's future role. If work experience is important, then this fact should be established and appropriate programs should be developed as an important part of business teacher education.

STUDENT TEACHING REQUIREMENTS

The requirement of student teaching is essential to and a major strength of business teacher education programs. Through this experience, the prospective teacher has the opportunity to relate his academic experiences to the programs he will teach.

The success of the student teaching experience depends upon the following factors:

1. Assigning student teachers to competent master teachers
2. Providing competent supervision and consultative help by qualified teacher educators
3. Providing activities that will familiarize student teachers with the total school program
4. Assigning student teachers to teach only in those classes in which they have demonstrated competency.

The organization of student teaching experiences varies with institutions. Generally, these various plans are followed:

Plan 1

The student teacher is assigned to a school for a quarter or semester and teaches under the supervision of a master teacher and a specialist in business teacher education from the student's college.

Plan 2

The student teacher is assigned to a school for a quarter or semester and teaches under the supervision of a master teacher and a college supervisor who may or may not be a specialist in business education. A specialist in business teacher education usually consults with the student teacher during the term of assignment.

Plan 3

The student teacher teaches one or more classes under supervision as a part of his normal academic course load. The master teacher and college business teacher educator supervise the student teacher.

Plan 1 is followed most frequently by colleges and universities. The strength of this plan rests upon the provision for supervision by the people best able to judge effective teaching in both methodology and competence in handling the subject matter. The other plans can be and are effective programs to the extent that the supervising personnel are capable of evaluating and offering specific help and advice.

RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

In most states it is still true that, except for certain minimum teacher certification requirements, colleges and universities preparing business teachers have considerable latitude to determine the appropriate preparation of business teachers. This flexibility for program development has provided considerable variation in programs across the county and is a strength of business teacher education programs.

A college or university can focus its attention on areas it believes important to serve its public and private schools. Curriculum innovations to meet the requirements of technological changes in business can be more readily reflected in teacher education programs when colleges have such flexibility.

Increasingly, however, in a number of states, efforts have been made to structure programs for teachers in considerable detail. The major problem created by a detailing of course requirements for certification is that of securing agreement concerning the most effective program. Interest groups and vocal minorities sometimes bring about changes not necessarily in the best interests of prospective teachers and to all programs.

Structuring at the national and state level as a result of vocational legislation has also had its impact on teacher education requirements. An examination of state plans for vocational education will reveal that traditions dating back to the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 are being perpetuated in many of today's programs. Nothing is certain in the business and economic world today but change. It is imperative that business educators make every effort to preserve the right to modify their programs as the needs of our business and economic world dictate.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

College enrollments have been increasing at an unprecedented rate. During the 1960's these enrollments will increase by 70 percent as compared with 40 percent during the 1950's. These enrollment increases have strained college facilities and faculties and have resulted in considerable upgrading of admission requirements in both public and private institutions.

With a large number of students applying for admission to major programs in business, it has become possible to become more selective. This selective group of students has influenced in a positive way the scope and depth of teacher education programs and has also resulted in more capable teachers.

QUALIFICATION OF FACULTY

The strength of any educational program is determined by its faculty. Over the years business education has been fortunate in having attracted to its ranks extremely competent faculties in business teacher education. When the work and activity of these educators is assessed, their influence in shaping and developing the field stands out as a truly outstanding achievement.

In addition to developing a rather sophisticated teaching methodology, business educators have also made efforts to move the frontiers of business education. The development of on-going research programs, the establishment of an effective professional structure, and a facility for prolific writing that serves to inform teachers of new developments and changes in education and technology are major strengths of business teacher education programs.

ARTICULATION WITH BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PROGRAMS

Considerable variation exists in the extent of articulation of business teacher education programs with business administration programs. In some colleges and universities, business teacher education programs are housed and supported in schools of education—in others, in schools of business. Considerable controversy exists as to which location is most propitious for the development of business teacher education programs.

It is not the purpose here to discuss the relative merits of each arrangement; it is to discuss the extent of articulation that exists.

The foundation of most business teacher education programs rests upon a strong background of business administration subjects. From the early days to the present, business teacher educators believe that a teacher must know what to teach fully as well as how to teach. With the exception of a few courses especially designed to meet the needs of secondary teachers, prospective business teachers in most instances take the same business courses that business administration students take. This is an important strength of teacher education programs since the business teacher should be a leader in the business as well as the educational community.

PROVISIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AFTER GRADUATION

Virtually all college and university programs make provisions for the continuing professional growth of practicing teachers. These take the form of workshops, institutes, seminars, and special courses. Provisions are also made in most programs for teachers to continue their study toward advanced degrees.

These efforts on the part of colleges and universities are designed to keep teachers informed of developments in their field and to better prepare them to perform their teaching functions.

Professional growth is also provided through business teacher organizations. The professional organizations in business education, through research and professional journals, provide for the dissemination of research findings and information on new developments and teaching methods used successfully by teachers.

Local, state, regional, and national conventions are also sponsored by professional organizations. These provide business teachers the opportunity to get together with their peers for the purpose of sharing ideas, becoming informed of new developments, hearing presentations by experts in a variety of areas, and socializing. To the extent that business educators avail themselves of and participate in their professional organizations, this is a major strength of business teacher education programs.

CONCLUSION

Business educators have a heritage of which to be proud. Cooperation, receptivity to change, vision, and imagination have characterized this heritage. It should be pointed out, however, that these terms are relative ones and should not be construed to mean that there is no room for improvement. Education on all levels is changing rapidly. Business educators are facing problems today that were only remotely conceived by a few several decades ago. Dramatic changes are being forced upon us by the development of area vocational-technical schools, which require different and unusual programs; demands by society for basic business and economic education programs; the growth of the junior colleges; the growth of education programs sponsored by business and industrial firms; the availability of state and national funds for research activities and programs; and the ever-increasing influx of students. Business teacher educators must accept their new responsibilities in the space age more readily than they have accepted change in the past. It has been said that "knowledge is the only commodity that is not subject to the law of diminishing returns." Business teacher educators must be at the frontier of that knowledge by: (a) continually analyzing on-going and developmental programs in business teacher education; (b) assessing and evaluating employment, educational, social, and technological trends in order to maintain vital teacher education programs; and (c) developing graduates who, as teachers, will assume leadership roles in education, business, society, and research.

Chapter 30

Weaknesses of the Past and Present

ROBERT E. HOSKINSON, Washington State University, Pullman

To assess the weaknesses of the past and present in business teacher education, it becomes necessary for one to assume the role of the devil's advocate in some respects. There is no question that significant strides have been made in business teacher education during recent decades. Many business educators have had the benefit of excellent preparation in a number of fine teacher education programs during this era.

Nevertheless, business teacher educators must guard against assuming a complacent, self-satisfied attitude toward their professional programs. In this chapter the author does not intend to condemn all accepted patterns in business teacher education; nor does he wish to imply that current innovations and experimental practices in the field will necessarily result in a vastly superior business teacher education program. Rather, he hopes to cause business educators to assess, in a critical manner, the effectiveness of certain traditional goals and practices in business teacher education.

Too often business educators have adopted a curricular practice or a teaching method because "everyone is doing it," or because "it has always seemed to produce results in the past." One German philosopher made this observation about the danger of placing too much reliance upon tradition:

> Every tradition grows ever more venerable—the more remote is its origin, the more confused that origin is. The reverence due to it increases from

> generation to generation. The tradition finally becomes holy and inspires awe.[1]

Are business educators guilty of perpetuating "holy" traditions in their teacher education programs?

No one would challenge the fact that we are living in a dynamic society characterized by continuous change. Nevertheless, educators are sometimes slow to realize that as the needs of society change, so must their professional goals and practices change. Have business educators expressed sufficient concern to analyze their goals and examine their programs as carefully as they might? Have they exerted the necessary effort to guard against the insidious danger of perpetuating outdated objectives and ineffective practices which continue to exist because it has been easier to stick with the status quo—the established goals, the familiar curriculums, and the comfortable methods?

Let us take a critical look at certain significant phases of the business teacher education program. In making such an analysis, the business educator might well ask himself these three questions:

1. How realistic are the objectives of the typical business teacher education program?
2. How effective is the business teacher education curriculum in meeting the current and projected needs of business teachers?
3. To what extent are business teacher education students being given an opportunity to observe, to practice, and to evaluate innovations in teaching methods?

Each of these questions will be elaborated upon in the remaining sections of this chapter.

HOW REALISTIC ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THE TYPICAL BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM?

Traditionally, the objectives of the business teacher education program have been twofold: (1) to prepare undergraduate students to become business teachers on the junior high or secondary level, and (2) to provide additional learning experiences for teachers in the field through traditional graduate programs as well as through various types of in-service education experiences. It is possible, however, that business teacher educators have neglected to emphasize other objectives of equal importance. The writer would like to suggest other goals which have been placed in the category of "things we plan to do when we get time."

---

[1] Bartlett, John. *Familiar Quotations.* Twelfth edition. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1948. p. 1194.

Business Teacher Educators Have Not Made a Concentrated Effort To Encourage Capable Young People To Enter the Teaching Profession.

Thornton made two interesting conclusions in a study to determine the factors that influence the selection of business teaching as a career among college students: (1) high school business teachers had influenced two-thirds of the respondents in their career choice, and (2) three-fourths of the respondents in her study became interested in business teaching as a career when they were between sixteen and nineteen years of age.[2] It would appear, therefore, that business teacher educators might profitably direct intensified recruiting activities toward the high school student. Business teacher educators need to make high school students aware of the opportunities available to them in business education.

More emphasis needs to be placed upon the following recruiting activities:

1. Making high school visitations
2. Participating in career days
3. Holding departmental open houses for high school students
4. Distributing informative and attractive career brochures concerning business education programs
5. Reminding high school business teachers of their responsibility to encourage their better students to consider business teaching as a career
6. Acquainting high school administrators and guidance personnel with the opportunities for the college-educated business education student
7. Acquainting potential students who wish to pursue a collegiate business education program with information concerning entrance requirements.

During recruiting activities, special emphasis should be given to the fact that the business education program provides its students with dual preparation. Students in this program are prepared to enter either business teaching or one of many office occupations. (This can be a particularly important consideration for a young woman whose occupational opportunities may be somewhat restricted by the geographic location of her husband's position.)

---

[2] Thornton, Patricia W. "Factors That Influence the Selection of Business Teaching as a Career Among Students from Selected Colleges in the United States." *National Business Education Quarterly* 34: 59; Fall 1965.

As business teacher educators pursue recruiting activities, they must also remember to direct their efforts toward two groups within the high school—the business majors and the college preparatory majors who have had little previous exposure to business classes but who may have interest in business. Both groups of students sometimes make false assumptions concerning the qualifications needed to enter a business teacher education program. Because of incorrect information received from ill-advised friends or counselors, some high school business students have gained the impression that they cannot enter college because they have not followed a college preparatory curriculum. Yet there are many colleges and universities throughout the United States who will accept graduates from accredited high schools regardless of what high school majors they may have followed.

There are also high school students in the college preparatory curriculum who, even though they may have developed an interest in business teaching as a career, are not aware that it is possible for them to enter a business teacher education program in many institutions of higher learning without having had previous business instruction.

Business Teacher Educators Have Not Made Sufficient Effort To Prepare Teachers for Community College Positions.

The growth of community colleges throughout the country has been phenomenal. In the fall of 1964, there were 620 two-year institutions in the United States.[3] Since that time, many new two-year colleges have been established. In 1965, approximately 845,000 students were enrolled in institutions of this type.[4] Each year this number continues to increase at a rapid rate.

Community college administrators have frequently recruited business education staff members from among experienced high school teachers within the immediate vicinity of their schools. Many community colleges have necessarily had to staff certain vocational courses with men and women from the business community who have had little or no college education. Both groups of individuals have undoubtedly provided beneficial service to these two-year institutions. However, there seems to be a definite need for business educators who have been prepared specifically for community college teaching. The community college is in a position to provide unique business education opportunities which often are not being met on either the secondary or the four-year college levels. Their unique goals and multiple functions demand well-qualified teachers who are committed to the objectives of the community college and who are prepared to cope with the special problems which may be encountered in business education programs on this level.

---

[3] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. *Digest of Educational Statistics,* 1965 edition. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966. p. 92.

[4] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States:* 1966. 87th edition Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, 1966 p. 131.

Because students from community colleges frequently transfer to four-year institutions to continue their study in business, it is imperative that the business educators from both types of institutions make a greater effort to articulate their programs. Such cooperation, in the final analysis, will prove beneficial to educators and students in both types of institutions.

Business Teacher Educators Have Not Made a Real Effort To Prepare Teachers To Organize and To Teach in Adult Education Programs.

The advent of the shorter work week, the need to keep abreast with technological advancements, the need for retraining as a result of job displacement, and the demand for constructive leisure-time activities are all factors that have contributed to the increased emphasis upon adult education programs in educational institutions at every level. Because of the diversity in the nature and the structure of such programs, it is difficult to estimate the number of students who are currently engaged in adult education classes. The National Opinion Research Center conducted a general inquiry into the nature of adult education in the United States in 1962. These statistics were revealed in their final report:

> We estimated that approximately 25 million adults, more than one person in five, had been active in one or another form of learning during the twelve-month period just prior to June, 1962. Fifteen percent, or more than 17 million persons, had been enrolled in courses on a part-time basis, 2.5 million were full-time students, and close to 9 million had engaged in independent study. These estimates refer to just the adult

population of the country, that is, to persons either twenty-one or over, married, or the head of a household.[5]

In the field of business education, adult education programs range from the noncredit typewriting class offered one night a week in the small high school to the formal course in automated data processing offered for credit at the collegiate level. Business education teachers in these programs need guidance in order to establish meaningful adult education opportunities for various groups of students with a variety of needs at a variety of levels. Such guidance must include a consideration of goals, curricular organization, guidance procedures, teaching methods, and materials which have special application to adult education programs. Individuals who have taught in such programs know that a conventional course from the regular curriculum which has been concentrated into a three-hour block, meeting one night a week, usually does not result in the most satisfactory learning experience.

Business Teacher Educators Have Not Assumed the Responsibility To Follow Up Beginning Teachers Who Have Recently Been Graduated from Their Programs.

The business teacher education department too often relinquishes its responsibility to provide further professional guidance and/or opportunities for in-service development for its graduates during their initial teaching experiences. True, such individuals are encouraged to return for graduate work. But the interim between receiving an undergraduate degree and entering graduate school is a crucial period for many beginning teachers.

It is during these initial months of full-time teaching that many individuals make the important decision as to whether or not teaching is the profession for them. Unfortunately, it is also a period during which beginning teachers in many systems have little opportunity to confer with others concerning extremely important problems which they may be encountering in their initial teaching activities. School administrators are often too busy to give such individuals the help they need. Beginning teachers may also be reluctant to discuss problems with experienced colleagues in their department. Frequently, the responsibilities of the supervisory personnel in the system are so demanding that they are unable to give the beginning teachers the help they need at the time they need it.

---

[5] Johnstone, John W. C. *Volunteers for Learning*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965. pp. 1-2.

Business teacher education cannot be considered a process which suddenly ceases when one achieves an undergraduate or an advanced degree. It must be considered an on-going process. The follow-up of beginning business teachers must be considered a vital part of the teacher education program. Such guidance provides valuable assistance to beginning teachers at a time when they most need it. In addition, such follow-up experiences provide valuable feedback to business teacher educators concerning the effectiveness of their undergraduate programs. The problems with which these beginning teachers are struggling may also suggest learning experiences from which they could profit as they continue their professional development in formal graduate programs.

Business Educators Have Not Placed Sufficient Emphasis upon Meaningful Research Activities as One of the Essential Goals of the Business Teacher Education Program.

The research which has been completed during the past decades in business education has been limited primarily to graduate studies. Financial considerations, inexperience in research methods, inability to control variables in experimental research, and time limitations have necessarily curtailed the significance of such research activities.

Few business teacher educators have had the opportunity to do postgraduate research on an independent basis. Many business educators have found it impossible to participate in such activities because of inordinately heavy teaching loads and time-consuming counseling responsibilities. Others, unfortunately, have not been willing to expend the time or the energy required to do meaningful research.

During recent years, federal and state funds, as well as private foundation grants, have opened promising new research avenues for business educators. For the first time, it has become possible for many business educators to (a) have released time for research activities, (b) pursue interdisciplinary research with colleagues from other departments within their institutions, (c) participate in regional and national research projects, and (d) conduct studies which were previously impossible because of insufficient funds.

Despite such golden opportunities, too many research projects which could result in significant contributions to the field of business education are limited in their effectiveness because of nebulous goals, inadequate planning, questionable research procedures, needless duplication of effort, and inadequate dissemination of research findings.

The need for creative and sound research efforts is intensified by the dynamic changes which are occurring in both the business world and in the educational process. Opportunities for carrying on such research are now available. Business educators must engage in a united and coordinated effort to establish intelligent research goals, to utilize valid research procedures, and to establish adequate lines of communication to disseminate the results of research efforts.

HOW EFFECTIVE IS THE BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM IN MEETING THE CURRENT AND PROJECTED NEEDS OF BUSINESS TEACHERS?

Many business educators would agree that the objectives of a business education department should be twofold:

1. To prepare individuals for business careers or to help them advance in business careers which they have already entered
2. To provide *all* students with those understandings and abilities which will enable them to (a) understand better the economic system which so strongly influences their daily living patterns, (b) use intelligently the business services at their disposal, (c) develop those competencies needed by effective consumers, and (d) become familiar with occupational opportunities in the field of business.

Business Teacher Educators Need To Evaluate the Effectiveness with Which They Achieve Their Vocational Objectives.

How well are business teacher education programs preparing teachers to implement the foregoing objectives in their business education programs? Few would disagree that major attention has been devoted to preparing teachers to implement the vocational objective. A major portion of the "content" and special methods courses appears to be geared toward preparing individuals to teach the skills and knowledges needed in office occupations. Despite the emphasis given to the vocational objective in business education, business teacher educators might well consider the following questions as they evaluate their programs:

1. Has an attempt been made to secure up-to-date information concerning the present skills and knowledges needed by our business education students?

2. Has an effort been made to project the skills and knowledges which will be needed by business education students in the years ahead?
3. Are business teacher education students being provided with the background they need in order to construct meaningful curriculums, to plan adequate laboratory facilities, and to select and maintain laboratory equipment? (Many inexperienced business teachers are being called upon to make important decisions in these areas as their schools attempt to qualify for funds which have been made available through the Vocational Act of 1963.)
4. Are business teacher education students being provided with meaningful work experience opportunities? (Many business educators would agree that, while a cooperative work experience program is not an essential phase of an effective teacher education program, it is a desirable experience for the business teacher. Now that work experience is a requirement for vocational certification in many states, business teacher educators have a responsibility to make this phase of the program a meaningful learning experience.)

Business Teacher Educators Need To Evaluate the Effectiveness with Which They Achieve Their General Education Objective.

Many business teacher educators have been less enthused and, consequently, less effective in preparing business teachers to implement the second major objective of business education—to provide *all* students with basic business and economic understandings. In order to increase their effectiveness in this area, business teacher educators must:

1. Inspire their students to believe that this general education objective is just as important as the vocational objective in business education
2. Require business teacher education students to take sufficient work in the fields of economics and business administration in order to provide them with adequate backgrounds to teach in these areas
3. Require business teacher education students to do a portion of their student teaching in the areas of basic business and/or economics
4. Make an intensive effort to acquaint school administrators with the need to require instruction in basic business education and economics for *all* students within the school.

Prospective Business Teachers Must Be Prepared To Cope with Students' Reading Problems.

Business teacher educators must place greater emphasis in their methods classes on preparing prospective teachers to cope with reading problems which have become a major handicap to learning for many students in business courses. The severity of this problem is revealed in these startling statements which appeared in a recent article entitled "Why Many 'Johnnys' Still Can't Read":

> In Seattle, on May 4, the International Reading Association was told that, within three years, one out of every two children in large urban areas will be bad readers—"educationally handicapped" for life. . . . There is disturbing evidence that millions of youngsters are being graduated from high school with only the barest reading ability. That evidence is bolstered by reports from many colleges that 25 percent or more of their students are gravely deficient in reading.[6]

It is evident that students with severe reading problems must be referred to the reading specialist. However, the business teacher should have knowledge which will help him to diagnose students' learning difficulties which may stem from reading problems. He must also be prepared to select and to prepare materials appropriate for the reading levels of his students. Finally, he must be in a position to help his students to develop good reading habits as they prepare out-of-class assignments.

Prospective Business Teachers Must Be Prepared To Work with Disadvantaged Students.

Too often the practices and procedures emphasized in business education methods classes are geared toward students who have average or better intelligence, who have a reasonable degree of interest in school, and who come from middle- or upper-class social and/or economic backgrounds. Yet more and more of our business teachers, particularly in large urban areas, are facing problems of astronomical proportions as they work with disadvantaged youth who have extreme emotional and/or social handicaps. Prospective business teachers need more than a professional course in "Teaching Disadvantaged Youth" in order to cope with the problems they are likely to face in teaching such students. They must be given experiences in which they may observe and work with disadvantaged students. They must also have opportunities to experiment with special methods and materials which may be used to advantage with such handicapped students who may be enrolled in their business classes.

---

[6] "Why Many 'Johnnys' Still Can't Read." *U.S. News & World Report* 62: 72; June 12, 1967. p. 72.

TO WHAT EXTENT ARE BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS BEING GIVEN AN OPPORTUNITY TO OBSERVE, TO PRACTICE, AND TO EVALUATE INNOVATIONS IN TEACHING METHODS?

Prospective Business Teachers Must Have Opportunities To Explore Innovations in Methodology.

Since the primary goal of the business teacher education program is to prepare effective business teachers, it is apparent that its students must have first-hand experience both as participants in, and directors of, classroom learning experiences which extend beyond the lecture, discussion, demonstration, and group dynamics methods. Students must be provided with opportunities to explore such methods as team teaching, programed instruction, the case-study method, television instruction, block-plan simulated office experience, taped instruction, and dictation laboratories.

Prospective Business Teachers Must Develop the Habit of Making a Critical Analysis of Innovations in Methodology.

It is imperative that business teacher educators go one step farther as they provide students with opportunities to explore these relatively new methods of instruction. It is essential that experience with such methods be accompanied with critical evaluation on the part of business education students. Existing evidence would suggest that some business educators are prone "to jump on the band wagon" when it comes to adopting new teaching methods which have questionable merit when one examines research relative to the innovation. Before implementing innovative methodology in his own classes, the intelligent business educator must develop the habit of making a critical analysis of any innovation in order to determine its appropriateness and its effectiveness in his own situation.

CONCLUSION

Business teacher educators cannot afford to perpetuate outdated goals and practices in an era characterized by dynamic changes in both the business world and in the educational process. Such revolutionary changes demand that business educators constantly evaluate their objectives, curriculums, and methods on the basis of sound research in order to meet the present and projected needs of the business teacher.

Chapter 31

Projections for the Future

JOHN E. BINNION, Texas Technological College, Lubbock

If there is one major point to which this writer would direct his attentions and predictions for the future, it would be that business educators will have to learn to *think big* and *think new.* No one would argue at this point that we have been blessed with a fine group of outstanding leaders—Frederick G. Nichols, Paul S. Lomax, Ann Brewington, E. G. Blackstone, Elvin S. Eyster, Jessie Graham, D. D. Lessenberry, Jay Miller, Hamden L. Forkner, and Herbert A. Tonne, to name but a few.

But in the above list, two are deceased and all of the others have reached retirement age, although two continue with full-time teaching assignments and the others remain active in various other endeavors. Those mentioned are but a few of the forward thinkers of our time and in our field; they have exercised leadership of far-reaching and imaginative nature. They, and a few others of similar ability, have led us to the present state of academic respectability and competence.

But who will be filling the spots which are being vacated by these teachers of vision? From where does our leadership come now that these and a few select others are turning the reins of leadership over to younger and less experienced men and women? What, indeed, are the predictions for the future and from where will our leadership come?

A sincere hope is that from the materials that follow there will be sufficient challenge in one or more areas to develop leadership in someone who is as yet lacking in national recognition. Perhaps business education will soon develop another Nichols or Lomax or Eyster or Forkner—a person who has imagination, foresight, conviction, and the ability to communicate and influence change. Do we dare to dream?

OUR FUNDAMENTAL PREMISE

The fundamental premise of this chapter is that business education of the future will be mainly that of a post-high school nature. The reader must remember this as he continues the chapter, for many of the observations or recommendations will not be understood if one does not read with this in mind.

The writer believes that business education would be better if we would transfer general-purpose typewriting to the elementary grades so that the skill could be used during the student's entire subsequent period of formal schooling. It is true that a vocational typewriting course would follow as students prepare for careers, but the initial course could be in the elementary years.

For those teachers who are somewhat skeptical, one merely has to go to the literature for illustrations. Charles E. Silberman reports that ". . . Professor O. K. Moore of Yale has shown that even two- and three-year olds of average intelligence can learn to read, write, and typewrite. Public schools have been wasting valuable years by postponing the teaching of many important subjects on the grounds that they are too difficult."[1] And all of us are well aware of the recent research which has been done in elementary typewriting by such authorities as John L. Rowe[2] and by Nathan Krevolin.[3] Historically, the literature of the 1930's is full of such material.

There is no need to pursue the point, but if we would accept it we would then admit that elementary school teachers would probably be the teachers of the typewriting described above and our methods courses would be seriously affected. More research needs to be done, and we can't afford to wait; all we have to do is to look at current magazines to see elementary school children working with electronic teaching machines where the answers are to be *typed* on an electric typewriter which is attached to the machine. The answer is electronically verified.

---

[1] Silberman, Charles E. "The Remaking of American Education." *Fortune,* April 1961. pp. 125-130.

[2] Rowe, John L. "Readin', Typin', and 'Rithmetic." *Business Education World* 39: 9-12, January; 19-21, February; 19-22, March 1959.

[3] Krevolin, Nathan. "How Can We Best Implement Elementary School Typing Courses?" *Business Education World* 45: 11-15; November 1965.

Who says elementary school children do not need to know how to typewrite? Who says that they cannot learn? They are doing it, and they could do it better with our help.

A second belief of the writer is that education for business and economic literacy should also be started in the primary grades and should be part of the general education of all students. With the initiative and cooperation of business teachers, we could see that important business and economic concepts are integrated throughout the K-12 programs of our school systems.

Again, we would have to see that teachers other than business teachers were entrusted with the principle work of "our" courses. But the children need this information, and study after study in our country has shown that only a small percentage of the public school students ever have a formal course in economics or have a working knowledge of business and economic principles.

Just as we have need for special research to provide typewriting instruction and methods courses for typewriting in the elementary school, so would we have to do this for business and economic literacy. And as we lower these courses to the public school grades, we see that the vocational or prevocational courses would obviously require a higher level of skill and understanding as these courses are offered in the upper grades.

Yes, there are new challenges for business education.

THE DIRECTION OF THIS CHAPTER

The writer offers no apologies for the content which follows, nor does he attempt to shift any responsibility. He has had no opportunity to read any of the material which preceded his, so there is a distinct possibility that there will be a certain amount of repetition involved. On the other hand, there is an even greater possibility that his opinions will differ from many of those which have been expressed by other writers in the *Yearbook*.

But the direction of the chapter is that of an attempt to do creative and imaginative thinking; it is an attempt to get business educators to think differently. More important, it is an effort to throw out enough challenge to beget a change in what we say and what we do.

Should there be controversy, let us hope that it fits something which John Milton once wrote:

> There is no learned man but will confess he hath much profited by reading controversies; his senses awakened, his judgment sharpened, and the truth which he holds more firmly established. In logic they teach that contraries laid together more evidently appear; and controversy being permitted, falsehood will appear more false, and truth more true.[4]

And should there be repetition, the writer would hope that such repetition would fit the mold created by John V. Walsh as he spoke of meaningful repetition of subject matter from one course to another.

> The high school principal should not be disturbed if the various subjects in the school touch upon the needs of pupils and seem to repeat or overlap. This is all to the good because (1) the pupils will be helped to appreciate the interrelationships of various subjects; (2) they will get an enriched understanding through looking at topics from different angles; (3) the study of a topic in one department tends to give impetus to the study of the same topic when it is met with in another department; and (4) it impresses the pupil with the fact that the topic is important.[5]

Finally, as a part of the introduction, the writer would like to point out that in general the make-up of the chapter follows that of the order of the *Yearbook*. In addition, the reader is requested to note that: (a) Because none of the other materials in the *Yearbook* have been seen, some literary license is requested—and has been used. (b) In no single area is there a complete discussion presented. The purpose of this chapter was to stir the reader's imagination and perhaps instill some controversy. If a brief mention of specific areas can do this, the work has been satisfactory. (c) Bibliographical references have been kept to a minimum. A wealth of information is available on both sides of controversial topics, and the reader has but to search a little in order to secure additional material.

---

[4] John Milton, as quoted in *The New Dictionary of Thoughts*. New York: Standard Book Co., 1954. p. 99.

[5] Walsh, John V., "What a High School Principal Thinks Business Education Should Do." *National Business Education Quarterly* 18: 9-12; Winter 1949.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational Education: Importance

A dichotomy of American education and our economic problems is that of vocational education. On the one hand we have a problem of providing sufficient general education for all students in order to help them have the so-called "good life." Surely no one will argue the fact that an ability to read and participate in the outstanding literature of both the past and present adds much to the general happiness and contentment of an individual; a knowledge of the political and economic life of his country adds much to one's personal contributions to his society; an understanding, simple though it may be, of elementary phases of sciences and mathematics helps one understand the tremendous contributions which are being made in synthetics, electronics, space exploration, and so forth; and an understanding and appreciation of history lends itself to one's understanding of world affairs.

On the other hand, we are faced with outstanding unemployment problems because so many teen-age boys and girls are unskilled and unable to participate in any phase of American business or industry. These young people must be helped, through the country's educational systems, to learn some employable skill so they can get off relief roles, off the streets, and off the list of potential trouble-makers. Some time must, therefore, be given during the public school years to the problems of vocational education for initial employment.

The above controversy, however, is nothing new. At the turn of the century business leaders were demanding that the public schools offer courses in vocational subjects for the purpose of economic and business literacy. Bankers, manufacturers, merchandisers, educators, leaders in professional organizations—all entered into the discussion.

Then, after Sputnik, we seemed to have a reversal; and the public schools reorganized their curriculums so that major emphasis was again placed on the so-called liberal studies. Few of us can deny the need for such emphasis, but something must have been wrong. By the beginning of the 1960's the dropout rate in the public schools was growing by fantastic proportions. There was a certain group of students who were not interested in science, mathematics, or the classics as such; and because of disinterest, the young people were withdrawing from school.

Now there is a new emphasis in education—vocational training for those who need skills in order to enter the labor market and become productive and contributing citizens. Again, however, we may be facing problems which will have to be changed in the near future. Examples are:

1. The high school graduate, if allowed to place major emphasis on vocational courses which emphasize beginning skills, may again face a cultural vacuum.
2. Vocational training, which often does emphasize only beginning skills, may not provide the student with the ability to change and adjust with the demands of business. If this is so, he will again find himself on the sidelines, facing unemployment and economic chaos.
3. In a period of increased population and changes in jobs because of automated procedures, the youth may still be trying to enter the labor market at an age which is unacceptable to business. He may need an extra year or two of schooling and maturity before he can be productive from a business point of view.
4. Compulsory military service, which faces most young men, may also affect the young male student. Too much vocational training at the secondary school level might make him less fit for change at the time of discharge from military service.

For the future, then, we can see only an increase in the emphasis in vocational education. But this emphasis may not be at the secondary school level; rather, it may be at the post-high school level. And more will be said about this at subsequent places in the chapter.

Vocational Education: Present and Future Types

At the present time, and for some years past, our work experience programs in the schools have been of three types:

Cooperative: a system wherein the student works in a real business office, earning real wages, and doing real business activities. It is somewhat traditional that the student works for a half-day and attends school for a half-day.

Directed: a system where the student usually works for the school in a school office. He is usually not paid; he is usually one of the superior students, either grade-wise or in potential; and he usually performs routine tasks which are often not too important—or at least not challenging.

Simulated: a system wherein the student does his work experience in the classroom using simulated business problems. There is usually a make-believe atmosphere and practice sets are normally the closest one comes to real business transactions.

For the future, however, it appears that we will have to give increased emphasis to the *simulated* type of work experience. Any thinking business teacher can visualize a whole new realm of simulated work experience situations such as are currently provided in other fields such as science and mathematics. But the simulated work experience will have to be improved through such efforts as Operation Moonshot[6] and through improved research activities by individual teachers. Some illustrations of what could be done might include such activities as computerized business games, where the student is tested on his ability to apply knowledge rather than recite facts, and simulated problems requiring machine and equipment skills, which can test performance rather than theory and require analysis and application rather than rote memorization and recitation. (Simulated programs can come under the federal classification of "fundable," and as such the school can secure federal financial support for the purchase of applicable office-type machines and equipment.) Small schools can provide work experience for students, even though business and industrial establishments are either restricted or nonexistant in the geographic area. Simulation provides the work experience.

The variety which is possible is unlimited. Publishers will, of course, have many materials; but more will come from the imaginative applications of teachers, and still more will come from cooperative ventures of teachers and businessmen.

Vocational Education: Implications for the Teacher

The increase in emphasis of vocational education has some far-reaching implications for the teacher. In the first place the teacher must have had full-time work experience in business and industry. He must know what the office situation really is.

---

[6] At the present writing, Operation Moonshot is a cooperative effort being conducted by a consortia of organizations interested in business education and operating under the administrative umbrella of The Center for Vocational and Technical Education (currently located at The Ohio State University and financed by the United States Office of Education). In a tentative "for discussion purposes only" paper, the purpose of the project was described as follows: *The major purpose of this research project is to develop (or redesign) the business and office education curriculum for vocational and technical programs at the high school, technical institute, community college, and adult education levels; based on the unchanging and long-persisting functions of the office as they are found in business, industry, and government.* The paper also stated that the proposed project would generally follow the pattern of such study groups as the School Mathematics Study Group and the Physical Sciences Study Committee.

In the second place, the teacher must have *recent* work experience, and this experience must be of a recurring nature. The teacher must return to the business office at intervals in order that he may be familiar with current requirements of business with respect to business skills and personal competencies and characteristics.

Before the teacher can acquire the work experience, or at least concurrent with acquiring it, collegiate-level course work must be completed. No longer can the teaching certificate be based on a meager knowledge of the arts and sciences; no longer can the certificate be based on a meager knowledge of business—such as a set of courses consisting mainly of the skills of typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, and office practice (including office machines).

The teacher must first of all be a well-educated person who can apply his general knowledge to business situations. Then the business teacher must be truly a business teacher and not a tradesman in a specialized skill. In another section of this chapter there will be a comment regarding business courses, so no additional mention will be made at this point.

But on this matter we must search our hearts for answers to "what is wrong" with business education. Actually, nothing is so very wrong; but each of us must admit that we could be doing a better job. Too many of us are bookkeeping teachers, typewriting teachers, secretarial teachers, or distributive education teachers. Too few of us are *business* teachers who may at a particular time be teaching bookkeeping, typewriting, shorthand, or a distributive course. The above is not a play on words; it is a realistic attitude which many of us have and which we pass on to our students in vocational classes.

Economic Literacy

Much has been written on the subject of economic literacy during recent years and more will follow. For the business teacher, a good background in economics is a must. The foundation for the house of business is economics; and if the foundation is weak, the house will also be weak.

In an earlier section the writer stated his conviction that business and economic literacy is something which should be included throughout all the grades and not just offered in one particular course. In addition, if such is offered in just one course, only a few students will be exposed to the concepts and the great majority of our students will never have a formal opportunity to secure the necessary understanding.

Whether or not the business teacher offers a specific course in general business, business law, economics, or some similar subject, he must still be well grounded in economics courses and in a variety of the functional business courses. This, again, is mentioned in a later section, so no specifics will be listed here. But in order for the business teacher to be well grounded in his field, he must truly know business and economics in addition to the psychology of learning, the methods of teaching, and the business skill subjects.

The emphasis of this writer is on the objective that each of us should become business teachers in the broadest sense. Too often have school administrators, businessmen, and collegiate personnel looked on us as being teachers of typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Too often, however, these people have been correct in their viewpoints. Economic literacy, in its broadest sense (which means much more than two semesters of the principles of economics), is an absolute essential.

GENERAL EDUCATION

In the section of this chapter which concerned vocational education, the writer tried to make a point for the importance of a good general education for all business teachers. Most of us give lip service to the concept. Many of us argue against it, however, and many of us use very little of it when we teach a specific business course.

A few simple illustrations can be given to show how the business teacher can use courses from the general studies areas to supplement his own teaching.

1. Business ethics can be illustrated by the play, *The Merchant of Venice*. (English)
2. The increase in our nation's business with foreign countries, which began as a result of the early days of World War I, for the first time made us a creditor nation. (History)
3. The increased use of mathematics in business has made the application of algebra, geometry, and similar courses in pure mathematics more important. The business teacher can take leadership in this area. (Mathematics, data processing, business statistics)

4. The ability to communicate well is an important skill for advancement in business. Students should realize the importance of listening, speaking, and writing and should have the opportunity to practice these skills. (All courses)

Finally, the example we set will serve our students well. If we keep up with current literature and use it in class, the students (at least some of them) will follow our example; if we attend plays and concerts and listen to good music, some of the students will follow our lead; if we participate in civic affairs and make worthwhile contributions to the community, some of the students will remember; and if we display our flag and show a patriotic spirit, we may be able to stop some of the unethical and unpatriotic actions which occur all to frequently.

Most of this is based on our application of what we learned in the courses which we commonly call "arts and sciences." But all of it is part of business education.

POST-SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This writer has already said that he believes business education will become primarily a post-high school responsibility. With the exception of typewriting in the lower grades (as a general education course which will become part of the communications area) and the integration of business and economic concepts throughout the K-12 program, most specialized business courses will be taught beyond grade 12. If a school dropout is involved, the student may still enroll in business courses; but he will enroll in a school other than a traditional high school.

Cooperation: General Education and Business Education

In order for the above to be accomplished, there is little doubt that some of our traditional concepts of education will have to be revamped. Such revamping has already been done in some academic areas, such as science, mathematics, and foreign languages. Experimentation is being done in still other areas, and Operation Moonshot (which has already been mentioned) may open doors.

The main principle in all of this planning is that courses have to be made more attractive and more pertinent. Part of this will come about through new methods; part of it will come about through changes in curriculum such as block scheduling, nongraded schools, and similar innovations; and some will come about through new materials and equipment such as teaching machines and electronic teaching devices.

In no case, of course, does any of this imply a decrease in the importance of the classroom teacher. But in this change, we business teachers will have to be in on the planning so that we are assured that certain elements of business and economics are brought into the new curriculum and the new courses. In addition to being made more interesting in method, courses will have to be made more interesting in content—which includes concepts of business and economics. Certain elements of business education will then become general education.

There is little doubt that the initiative is up to us in business education. In all probability we will have to use our most influential business educators (*e.g.,* Eyster, Hosler, Wanous, Price) to convince the other disciplines of the importance of the change. In addition, we will have to see that adequate instruction *by qualified business educators* is made part of the new elementary school methods courses. After all, if the elementary school teacher is going to teach typewriting, we must be assured that the elementary teacher knows something of the psychology and philosophy of teaching typewriting. Likewise, the elementary teacher would also have to know something about business and economics.

Of course, this discussion is a two-way street. Business education must go to the other disciplines and secure their help in improving certain elements of our courses. English and social studies teachers can be particularly helpful; but so can teachers in the traditional vocational areas of home economics, agriculture, trades and industry, and distributive education.

In order to keep the potential dropout in school, we are going to have to improve a good many of our teaching methods and materials. The useless memorization of facts, meaningless repetition of problems, and deadly concentration on grammar rules rather than on communication processes illustrate the point. The student must learn to be interested in his job; he must realize the value of a good education which includes at least a high school diploma; he must learn that meaningful work and self-respect go hand in hand; and he must acquire the ability to organize, integrate, synthesize, and apply knowledge from all fields into the solution of current business problems.

And remember—all of this applies to general education in the secondary schools and not to vocational education as we know it.

Business Education: General Education or Vocational Training?

In 1951, South-Western Publishing Company printed *Monograph 75* which was authored by Carlos Hayden and which was a follow-up of a previous (1939) study by J Marshall Hanna. The title, *Major Issues in Business Education,* was a summarization of the opinions of approximately 40 business educators from throughout the country. The first questions asked of these educators involved the controversy of whether or not business education was vocational.

Although the majority of the educators did vote for the vocational element, there was apparently considerable hedging done: 95 percent said the aim was "to provide vocational training as well as to contribute to the general education of all students. . . ."; and 66 percent said that the aim of the school was to provide *mainly* for both "specific skills, knowledges, and abilities needed for specific jobs in business" and for "a broad general business background in preparation for any one of a variety of jobs."

Some years later (1962) South-Western Publishing Company released *Monograph 106* which was written by Jerre E. Gratz and which also carried the title of *Major Issues in Business Education.* In effect, Gratz did a follow-up study on the one done by Hayden, although some of the major issues appeared to have changed. At any rate, in a specific question concerning the placement of vocational business courses, a majority (60.5 percent) voted that the secondary school should be the location of the training.

It is interesting to note, however, that qualifying statements were made by J Marshall Hanna, Robert E. Slaughter, Elvin S. Eyster, and others. These qualifying statements—and several of them were quite direct—give support to this chapter's thesis that vocational education should be aimed toward the post-high school years.

Of importance to any controversy here is that Hayden's study was done in the early 1950's and Gratz's study in the early 1960's. In addition, a large number of those who responded to the Gratz study were those who had also been questioned in 1950. It is perhaps possible that opinions of some individuals had changed, but opinions of others had probably remained the same.

But with the Vocational Education Act of 1963, which is a part of our present programing in business education with federal funds pouring into the various business programs throughout the country, there is little doubt left that most of business education is vocational training. To believe otherwise would be close to hypocrisy.

The Case for Business Education in Post-Secondary Schools

The current unemployment rates in our country, the current racial disturbances, and the current increasing numbers of high school dropouts are all arguments for placing vocational business education in the post-high school years. Remember, however, that this theory is tied in with a belief that we can make education through the K-12 programs much more vital, interesting, and effective.

At the present time, all of the above-mentioned problem elements are closely tied together. We know that dropouts are a potential source of trouble because they are young, they are unskilled, and they are generally unemployable. And even if the dropout does find a position, his lifetime earnings are much less than those with more education. Some years ago *U.S. News*[7] published the estimated earnings of citizens of varying educational levels. Total lifetime earnings of specified grade levels were listed as $182,000 for grade school, $258,000 for high school, and $435,000 for college.

It is true that these figures have changed upward in the six years since they were compiled. The point remains, however, that the dropout is seriously affecting himself and his family if he does not finish high school. And high school is a mere minimum; with all there is to know today, and with all of the demands and challenges upon our time, the high school years must be filled with a body of knowledge which will enable all of us to cope with complex problems which we face.

Vocational training, for most of us, must be done as post-high school training in schools of various types. Our first goal in education is good citizenship—local, state, national, and world. Eventually, it will also include that of outer space. And with all there is for us to know today, we just have to devote the K-12 years to better and better general education.

The Independent Business Schools. The outlook for the independent business school has never been stronger. Through national accreditation, more than 400 schools have met and are continuing to meet high standards —although there is still a long way to go to improve all schools of this type. Their heritage has been strong; and business education, historically, owes a great debt to the leaders in this movement.

---

[7] "College Pays." *U.S. News*, September 25, 1961.

At the present time the accredited independent business school requires a high school diploma or its equivalent (such as the GED test certificate) for admission. Here, then, is genuine post-high school vocational education. In addition, students are not bound by the rules of the public schools; and in many instances the students quit school before graduation because they have learned an employable skill and are ready for productive employment and consequent citizenship.

At the present time, too, accredited independent business schools are recognized by the federal government and are eligible for certain benefits—financial and otherwise. Included in this category are such things as the various GI bills, federally insured loans for higher education and for vocational education, MDTA training, training for the handicapped under rehabilitation laws, and so forth.

But the independent business school must also continue to strive for high goals. Its vocational training must improve just as that of the public schools must improve; teachers' standards must be higher; work experience, by both student and teacher, should be included (simulation, again, may be the answer for the student); and the facilities and equipment to accompany the expanded curriculum must be adequate.

Area Vocational Schools. These schools, an innovation of somewhat recent origin although they have been with us in one form or another for many decades, are another form of post-high school education. It is true that these schools cater to all who want vocational training, and there is normally no restriction imposed because of a lack of a high school diploma.

Here we often find many students who were misfits because they were directed into academic majors for which they did not have the ability or the interest. Here we may also find an inferior student—one who is disadvantaged either mentally or by economic conditions, race, or some other limitation. But if these students have had, or could have had, a good general preparation before going to the area vocational school, the results could conceivably be much better.

Area vocational schools will expand, principally because of the great amount of federal funds which are available. There is a great challenge to provide for better education, however. The products of these schools must be skilled workers who can compete in today's business and industrial community and who will be able to adapt to tomorrow's expanded and complicated problems.

Community and Junior Colleges. Probably the golden area in education is that of the community and junior college (no attempt will be made here to differentiate between the two types of schools). This type of school is an American educational invention; it is currently serving a great need and will continue to expand in its services to the American people.

But these schools may have an advantage that the other post-high schools do not have, and that is the college transfer factor. Many students who enter the junior or community college do so with the intention of going on to a four-year institution. Many, however, intend to secure some sort of terminal (vocational) training in the junior college and then enter the labor market.

Again, the opportunity for vocational training, based on a solid foundation of a good secondary school academic background, is available. Perhaps the type of vocational training offered here will have to be of the highest level of all the post-high school institutions, for the junior or community college is usually a degree-granting institution and one of considerable prestige.

Adult Education Programs. Adult education programs are sometimes vocational and sometimes avocational. They differ a great deal from the other educational programs because many of the courses are offered at night and students are often enrolled after working a full day. The students are different and the teachers are different—at least, they behave in different manners.

Adult programs have much to offer, however; and good teaching is as important here as in any other type of school. New curriculums will come into being because of the changes in our economic and technological society, and teachers will have to be prepared to change with the demands.

Educational Programs in Industry. There are two types of educational programs in industry. Each of these will be briefly described.

1. The individual business or industrial firm may have an in-service program operating for its employees. The courses offered are not always of a vocational nature, but they may be. If they are vocational, the aim

is usually to upgrade the individual not only for his own benefit but also for the betterment of the firm. Many of the programs are centered around management training and are of a high level. We are told that industry pours more money into its own educational programs than is spent by all public schools.

2. The other type of industrial education program is that which is offered to others by business firms. In this new area of education we find that certain groups of industries have entered the field. The following are examples:

Communications—Time, Cowles Communications, Reader's Digest, and Newsweek.

Electronics—Xerox, General Electric, IBM, Litton Industries, Ratheon, RCA, 3-M Company, and Sylvania.

There are others, but the point here is that business and industry have entered the educational field on a large scale and are competing with the public schools and certain types of post-high schools. Much of what is being done is on the post-high school level, but much is also being done at all levels and in all academic fields, vocational and general.

Here, perhaps, is where we see the greatest changes in education. Books are new, testing devices are expanded and enlarged, and electronic systems are providing better learning for students of all ages, abilities, and interests. The teachers who teach here will have to be a new breed, with imagination and inventiveness and ingenuity which most of us never dreamed of having or using.

THE NEW TEACHER EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

With all of the foregoing, the reader at this point will wonder what can be offered which will enable a teacher to perform at such a high level and under such different conditions. And the answer is not easy. So, in order to facilitate reading, the points for the "new teacher education" will be listed in one-two-three order. Discussion will be limited.

1. The new teacher education will have to prepare business teachers to be business teachers in the broadest sense and not just specialists. Yet, with the complexity of our modern society, most teachers will also have to be specialists.

Another dichotomy? Perhaps, but the writer does not think so. The teacher may be a specialist in shorthand and transcription, but the interest of the teacher and his classroom emphasis must be wholly business. Business and economic concepts must constantly be integrated into the course work; everything which is taught should be taught with the student understanding how that separate element fits into the big picture of business.

2. A certain group of business teachers will have to learn how to devote their careers to elementary school teaching in order for typewriting to be taught at that level. These individuals will, perhaps, specialize in typewriting; but at the same time they will have to have elementary school training and will have to understand the methodology of the elementary school.

3. Another group of teachers will have to devote much of their time to the integration (and constant revision) of business and economic materials into the K-12 programs in the public schools. Here, again, special training and the understanding of other academic areas will have to be stressed. These individuals will have to be creators and innovators and writers; they will have to be able to work in cooperation with other teachers but with a strong sense of loyalty to business and economics.

4. Every business teacher will have to have an adequate and complete background in the arts and sciences. He must have this background in order to keep up to date, but he must also have it in order to keep up with the students with whom he is associated.

Perhaps the following chart will illustrate the problem which is implicit in the above statement. The figures listed under the column which is headed AACSB (American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business) are not absolutes for the Association (and they may certainly not be absolutes for business teacher education). The AACSB does not state its requirements in terms of semester hours, so the figures listed are those of the writer. The chart, however, does illustrate the point that finding enough time is most difficult.

One further point should be understood: the AACSB requires that 40 percent of the collegiate work done by the student must be in the business area, 40 percent in the nonbusiness area, and the other 20 percent as student electives. Principles of economics and economic history may be counted as either business or nonbusiness courses.

BASIC CURRICULUM REQUIREMENTS FOR THE BUSINESS TEACHER
(BUSINESS COURSES ONLY)

				Add for Specialization		
Course	AACSB Requirement	Other Necessary Courses	Total	Acctg. & Bookkeeping	Secretarial	DE
Accounting	6		6	9[e]		
Economics	6[a]	3[b]	9	3[f]		3[f]
Marketing	3		3			12
Management	3	6[c]	9			
Bus. Law	3		3	3[g]		3[g]
Bus. Finance	3		3	3[h]		
Bus. Statistics	3		3	3[i]		3[i]
Bus. Corres.		3	3			
Typewriting		3[j]	3		3[k]	
EDP Principles		3[d]	3	3[m]		3[m]
Shorthand					6[n]	
Office Practice					3[p]	
Total Hours	27	18	45	24	12	24

FOOTNOTES:

[a] Six hours of Principles of Economics, plus a course in economic history, may be counted as either business or nonbusiness courses. In the case of the business teacher, he would want to count them as nonbusiness.

[b] This course would probably be a course in the economic history of the United States. See footnote "a" above.

[c] Included here is a course in office management and one in personnel problems and practices.

[d] This is a concepts course; very little "hardware" would be taught.

[e] From this total the student would select four courses from accounting theory, income tax accounting, or cost accounting.

[f] This course would probably be either comparative economic systems or history of economic thought. It might be some other course, depending upon the interests of the student and his needs.

[g] Both accounting teachers and those involved in merchandising need to know more of law and legal concepts.

[h] Accounting teachers need to have a more thorough knowledge of accounting than just principles. Until our accounting departments revise the traditional course in accounting principles, the business teacher who will teach bookkeeping and accounting will have to have more background than what one course in business finance affords.

[i] In both accounting and merchandising a knowledge of the use of statistics in forecasting and decision making is becoming more and more important. These statistics courses are a must in today's business.

[j] This course might be waived if the student can pass a satisfactory test showing competency in the use of the typewriter.

[k] Teachers who specialize in the secretarial subjects need additional skill and training in the use of the typewriter. This course should provide the necessary additional skills.

[m] In both accounting and merchandising a knowledge of electronic data processing is becoming more and more necessary. This course is also one of concepts rather than hardware, but of an advanced nature with problem solving and business games being an integral part.

[n] A good knowledge of shorthand can be effectively learned in two semesters of college shorthand providing the subject is well taught. Transcription would be a part of the shorthand instruction as well as a part of the office practice course.

[p] The office practice course would include many concepts and skills such as duplicating and transcribing machines, records management, and similar upper-division office requirements. Primary emphasis would be on supervision rather than beginning skills, although a working knowledge would be a necessity.

A cursory evaluation of the chart will show that the accounting and the distributive education (merchandising) teacher will have to carry a load of 60 semester hours of business courses (45 total, plus 24 additional hours for specialization, less 9 hours of economics principles and economic history which can be counted as nonbusiness); the secretarial specialist would have 48 hours of business courses (45 plus 12 minus 9).

Based on a baccalaureate degree requiring 130 semester hours, including physical education or ROTC training, the student would be allowed a *maximum* of 78 semester hours of study in the business area. For two of our areas of specialization, the student will be pressed to get in his required and necessary business courses and still qualify for a teaching certificate.

The answer? Well, the easy answer is that some of the hours might be in the graduate area of work rather than the undergraduate area; however, not too much leeway can be allowed here.

5. Every business teacher should have a master's degree, preferably in business administration with a major in either a subject matter area or in business education. The exceptions to this would be those master of education or master of business education degree programs which allow for business administration majors.

The master's degree, however, should be earned concurrently with the teacher's full-time job and not before he teaches. If the degree is earned before the teacher has had full-time classroom experience, the graduate work is just more course work piled on top of undergraduate studies. If the graduate studies are taken during the time the teacher is actively in the classroom (this would normally be done during the summer), the teacher is able to bring to his graduate classes problems which he has had and which he needs to solve. In this way graduate work assumes much more importance.

6. Student teaching is an area which needs much improvement. The fifth-year program is one answer to the problem, but the success of the experiment has not been outstanding. What else is possible?

Well, one good suggestion would be to install an internship program for the prospective teacher where he would do his student teaching for an entire year while under contract with a public school system. He would receive pay for this tour of duty, he would not teach a full load (it might be as much as ⅔ or ¾ of a load), and he would receive considerable supervision from the administration and the departmental staff. While this would be a good method of recruiting for a particular school system, the major value would be for more and better experience for the neophyte teacher.

It is suggested, also, that student teaching be required of those who wish to teach in colleges, junior colleges, universities, independent business schools, and other post-high school institutions. Possible exceptions would be certain vocational teachers, but that topic will not be pursued at this time.

An important point to be considered is that the student teacher should be required to begin at the beginning of a specific term and end with it; in no instance should he be allowed to begin his student teaching after the class has begun or to end it before the end of the term when evaluation is done. The six- and eight-week student teaching assignments should never be allowed.

7. Supervision of student teachers should be done only by those who have proven themselves to be master teachers in their own right. Most of all, they should be allowed time from their regular teaching duties in order to do an adequate job of supervising and counseling. In the event the supervising teacher is not allowed time off, he should receive extra compensation from the school district or the sponsoring college so that he can be required to spend the necessary time needed for good student teacher supervision.

8. Student teaching and corresponding methods courses should provide opportunities for the student teacher to become familiar with innovations in teaching. Some of these have been discussed—or at least mentioned—in previous sections; all will receive only minor mention here.

a. *Case Problems.* There is hardly a business course which does not lend itself to the case problem method of teaching. Much time and effort should be spent in helping the teacher learn how to use this method.

b. *Programed Learning.* Several programed business textbooks are already in print and more are on the drawing board. The student teacher should receive instruction in how to use programed texts and should have the opportunity to use them in his student teaching assignment.

c. *Team Teaching.* Although team teaching is a controversial method, the student teacher should be exposed to it and should be required to participate in it. The method can be successfully used under proper conditions.

d. *Role Playing.* This method, like the case problem, can be successfully used in almost all business courses. And, as in the case method, the student is concerned with concepts and attitudes rather than facts.

e. *Newer Audiovisual Devices.* The student teacher, during his methods classes, should have adequate supervision and experience in the use of such teaching devices and equipment as listening stations (these can be used in more business courses than just typewriting and shorthand), paced projection equipment such as the Skill Builder, educational television, the overhead projector (this really isn't new!), and other innovations and teaching aids.

f. *The Computer.* Perhaps, for the time being, it is asking too much for every business teacher to be able to use a computer and to help his students solve business problems with it. However, this should be a goal for all of us, for the time is close at hand when most of teaching will have some immediate connection with the computer.

g. *Simulated Work Experience.* This method of securing work experience was discussed in another section but bears mention again. Methods courses will have to provide adequate instruction in this, and collegiate office practice courses will actually have to be involved in it. With the importance of office experience to both the teacher and the student, the technique will have to be part of the collegiate classroom program and the methods class.

h. *Micro-teaching.* As a comparatively new device, micro-teaching can be effectively used in both methods courses and in student teaching. Short television tapes can be made and re-run in order to show the student exactly what is good or bad. (Film loops can be made and used over and over to illustrate certain points.) Excellent supervision can come about as a result of this new method. Obviously, there are additional values which can come to any course—such as salesmanship, business law, and general business.

i. *Nonverbal Communication Methods.* This is also a comparatively new device which could use either television tapes or other audiovisual techniques, as well as other methods of observation and evaluation. A well-trained business teacher can learn to use effectively such nonverbal communication media as gestures, facial expressions, attitudes, skin color changes under periods of stress, perspiration evidence, and similar items.

j. *Integration of Subject Matter.* Another area which is not new, the integration of subject matter, is still an important method to be stressed in methods courses and in student teaching. Not enough can be said about the importance of having the student realize the interrelationships between courses of both business and nonbusiness nature. A great deal of stress should be placed on this problem.

k. *Size of Methods Classes.* Methods classes should be small so that the teacher can have optimum experience in classroom demonstrations. These demonstrations can be of short duration, but there should be provision for plenty of them.

l. *Supervision.* Methods and supervision of student teaching should be the responsibility of the department involved—in this case, business education—and not of "general teachers" from a school or department of education. The supervision of a student teacher in shorthand should be done by one who understands shorthand; in general business or business law by one who understands those subjects; and so forth. The same general comment could apply, to this writer's thinking, to those who were preparing for careers as teachers of English, history, home economics, art, or any other subject. (Many business teachers do prepare for teaching in second or "minor" academic areas.)

j. *Work Experience.* Although this area has already been explored, mention should again be made of the importance of work experience *of a recent nature* for every business teacher. Work experience should be a certification requirement for all business teachers.

9. The student teacher should be adequately prepared so that he will be able to teach in any of the post-high schools. With the new emphasis on vocational education, and with the increased emphasis on the post-high school education, the student teacher will have to be prepared for something more than secondary education. This means more education, more skill, and more knowledge of business and economics will be required.

10. Another area of importance to the business teacher during his methods and student teaching experience is that of professionalism. The student teacher must begin his professional library during his undergraduate years through the accumulation of the free publications—*Balance Sheet, Business Teacher, FBE Bulletin, Rowe Budget,* and similar materials—and his accumulation of other periodicals through his membership in professional organizations. Of particular importance are the professional organizations such as his state association, the NEA, NBEA, and AVA and their respective publications. Privately sponsored publications, such as the *Journal of Business Education,* the *Business Education World,* and *Today's Secretary* should also be stressed.

One cannot say too much about getting the student started off on the right track professionally. Most associations have student rates; but student rate or no, the professionalism must begin early and continue throughout the teacher's career. In the graduate years, of course, Delta

Pi Epsilon would be added if the student is fortunate enough to attend a school in which a chapter of that honorary organization is located.

11. At the very beginning of this paper, the writer mentioned leadership and our need for new strong national leadership at this particular moment. The Mountain-Plains Business Education Association, a Region of NBEA, has started something which could be well used by other regions and by state associations. In brief, the idea is to hold an annual institute for preparing business teachers for positions of leadership in their respective organizations and at all levels. Some of those who attend are trying only to serve well as a minor officer in a local organization, whereas some who attend have hopes of eventually assuming a national office in a professional association. Included is training as a program chairman, experience concerning membership and publicity, methods of introducing speakers, and a number of other important aspects of professionalism.

So far, the experiment has been quite successful. Almost every one of the participants (during a period of six years) has held at least one elective office, and several have actually assumed positions of national leadership. The future, of course, will hold more. But why cannot this type of leadership training be done on a local basis, in the business classroom? This writer thinks that it can be done, and he has had reasonable success in working with it.

CONCLUSION

At the end of a report such as this, the writer naturally looks back, makes a few changes, and wonders. Was anything here really new? What will happen when someone, five or ten or thirty years from now, reads this material and speculates on business education in 1968? How far behind will he think that we are, even as we here are looking toward the future?

On an earlier page the writer suggested that we look into our hearts to see what could be done to improve business education. And in that, perhaps, lies the answer. We must improve, even though we are doing a good job now. But we must think big and think new. The changes in business and industry will require us to make changes in our own classrooms—and in a fairly rapid manner.

So the conclusion rests just about there. We need new leadership so we won't let down those who have pioneered our field. We need new thinking. We need to think of business as a science and part of the general area we call economics. And we must keep up to date.

NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

A Department of the National Education Association

Executive Board, 1967-68

National Officers

President: F. Kendrick Bangs, University of Colorado, Boulder
Vice-President: Russell J. Hosler, The University of Wisconsin, Madison
Treasurer: Donald J. Tate, Arizona State University, Tempe
Past-President: Herbert A. Tonne, State University of New York at Albany
Executive Director: Hollis Guy, NEA Center, Washington, D.C.

Presidents of Divisions

Teaching, Supervision, and Administration: John C. Roman, Cincinnati Public Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio
International: Robert P. Poland, Michigan State University, East Lansing
Research: Frank W. Lanham, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Teacher Education: Arthur S. Patrick, University of Maryland, College Park

Presidents of Regional Business Education Associations

Eastern: Herbert F. Yengel, Farmingdale Senior High School, Farmingdale, New York
Southern: Ruth B. Carter, Central High School, Little Rock, Arkansas
North-Central: Robert T. Stickler, Proviso East High School, Maywood, Illinois
Mountain-Plains: Lloyd L. Garrison, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater
Western: Robert E. Rose, Boise College, Boise, Idaho

Regional Representatives

Eastern: John Federinko, Wilmington Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware; and Robert D. Edwards, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg
Southern: Richard D. Clanton, Louisiana State Department of Education, Baton Rouge; and Nora Goad, Stonewall Jackson High School, Charleston, West Virginia
North-Central: Enos C. Perry, Chicago Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois; Paul M. Pair, Automation Institute, Chicago, Illinois; and Ray G. Price, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis
Mountain-Plains: James Zancanella, The University of Wyoming, Laramie; and Agnes Kinney, South High School, Denver, Colorado
Western: Leonard L. Carpenter, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon; and Frances Brown, University of Washington, Seattle

NBEA Publications Committee

Estelle Popham, Hunter College of the City University of New York, chairman; J. Curtis Hall, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond; Enos C. Perry, Chicago Public Schools; Gordon F. Culver, The University of Nebraska; and Leonard L. Carpenter, Portland (Oregon) Public Schools